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THE DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING FOR LIBRARIAN- SHIP IN EUROPE

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IT IS only a few years since the publication of a very complete study both of the history and of the present condition of education for librarianship,¹ and many further contributions to the study of this subject have been made in recent years. Hence we may assume both an ample corpus of material which may serve as a basis for further investigation and an interest in the subject as one of vital importance among members of the profession in every country. Most libraries during the last quinquennium have been afflicted more or less severely by a diminution of material resources, and one of the beneficial results of these famine years has been a quickening of interest in the mobilization of intellectual resources. In particular, there has been a growing awareness of the need to examine carefully the qualifications necessary in the modern librarian and his staff. While the cost of personnel naturally varies considerably according to the number of persons employed, it is not affected nearly so much by variations in quality, since the services of the well-educated and intellectually well-equipped man or woman

¹ Institut International de Coopération Intellectuelle, *Rôle et formation du bibliothécaire; étude comparative* ... (Paris, 1935).

can, under present conditions, be obtained almost as cheaply as those of the individual who possesses merely technical or administrative ability. It is only natural, then, that countries like the United States, Germany, or Switzerland, which have been faced by the severest economic problems in the last few years, should have given more attention to the reconsideration of staff qualifications than others, like Great Britain, on which the economic burden has fallen more lightly.

The history of training for librarianship is told in detail in the publication referred to, and there is also an excellent historical summary in the late Dr. Milkau's *Handbuch*.² It is unnecessary, therefore, to trace the history again, bound up as it is with questions of professional status and showing such varieties of methods and results. So far as any general conclusion can be drawn from the results of investigation up to the present time, the most we can say is that the majority of writers agree that special training is both necessary and possible for librarians, but that opinions vary widely on such questions as the best form and degree of education to be required as a preliminary qualification, and that there is little agreement as to the proper method of professional training. Nevertheless, that we should have reached a definite conclusion as to the possibility and necessity of training is an important step in our professional development. Recognition of the "separateness" of librarianship has not been easy to win, owing, first, according to Milkau, to the fact that libraries have so little to show in comparison with such institutions as museums and art galleries, and, second, to their inability to claim public support with the same certainty as a learned institution established for purposes of teaching or research.³ Libraries, in fact—at any rate in Europe—have not carried conviction. They exist, in the opinion of the public, not for the development of learning but for the mere preservation of the record of knowledge, and that record in its tangible reality is not such as to inspire admiration or appeal to the eye

² Fritz Milkau, "Der Bibliothekar und seine Leute," *Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft* (Leipzig: Harrassowitz, 1933), II, 635-716.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 635-36.

as a thing of beauty. A library is a mere collection of books, and, it is generally believed, dull books at that, however precious they may be. Hence it was natural that early opinions of the librarian should classify him as a guardian, learned no doubt, but learned only for his own ends, using his treasures for the furtherance of his own researches and not in the service of others, a static individual, not an active participant in the stream of development that we call everyday life. There could be no question of training for this kind of librarian, nor could he be said to have any profession. It was necessary first to win him from his exclusive and isolated position to a recognition of his proper function as a servant of research or of education and to a grasp of his duty "Bücher durch den Gebrauch lebendig zu machen."⁴ No doubt this principle, the modern conception of librarianship, was from the first more or less realized in its completeness in the public libraries of the British and American type, but in libraries of the more scholarly kind it took more than one generation to bring both the public and the librarian to an appreciation of librarianship as a technical field, calling, therefore, for special qualifications and training. Even now, according to Dr. Ladewig, the old tradition of exclusiveness lingers among many of the learned librarians of European countries.⁵

Side by side with this recognition of the technical nature of librarianship and the growth of a professional outlook has come the realization that the place of administration is just as important as that of bibliography in the daily life of a library. Some, indeed, think that the administrative side is all important.⁶ Others like Dr. Leipprand, think that the emphasis on administration may already have been carried too far and that the influence of learning on librarianship has weakened to the detriment of the latter; whereas the reaction against the old-

⁴ Paul Ladewig, *Politik der Bücherei* (3d ed.; Leipzig: Lorentz, 1934), p. 27.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 24.

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 24-25: "Nicht derjenige, welcher an die Vorbereitung seines Kollegs oder seines neuen Buches denkt, sondern derjenige, welcher Aufgaben zu stellen und zu formulieren weiss, wie man Bücher vielfach nutzbar macht, der zum Ziele zu gehen nicht scheut, ist heute der geborene Bibliothekar."

fashioned professor-librarian in favor of organization for public service was fully justified, there is room now for a fresh consideration of the possibility of direct contributions to scholarship on the part of the librarian, "denn so wenig die Fingerfertigkeit den Virtuosen macht, ebenso wenig macht allein die verwaltungsmässige Behandlung des Buches den guten Bibliothekar."⁷ Attention has been drawn to this aspect of the question also in two articles by the present writer.⁸

On the whole, then, the problem to be faced is now a twofold one: first, what educational qualifications should be required, differentiated possibly according to the type of library service for which recruitment is being made; and, second, what form should technical training take, or where should the emphasis in training be placed? Great variety of opinion exists on both questions, in spite of the implication contained in Dr. Henriot's survey of a few years ago that there is a general consensus of thought on the subject.⁹ Dr. Henriot's article is a summary of opinions expressed in response to a questionnaire sent to one or two leading librarians in each of several countries. His principal conclusions are the following:

1. Everyone is agreed that training is necessary.
2. Courses and schools of training already exist in many countries; where they do not exist, steps should be taken to establish some kind of formal training.
3. A beginning may be made with the institution of short courses for practicing assistants.
4. There should be different courses for each of the three generally recognized categories: (1) the higher-grade librarians in learned and special libraries; (2) the higher-grade librarians in large public libraries; (3) the librarians of smaller libraries and the middle-grade librarians in the large public libraries.

⁷ E. Leipprand, "Fragen der Ausbildung für den wissenschaftlichen Bibliotheksdienst," *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, LIII (1936), 499.

⁸ "What shall we teach the librarian?" to be published in *Československá Společnost Knižnicářská*, 1937, and "The English librarian," in a *Festschrift* to be published in honor of Dr. Marcel Godet.

⁹ G. Henriot, "La formation professionnelle des bibliothécaires," *Revue des bibliothèques*, XXXIX (1929), 121-54. One cannot avoid the impression that Dr. Henriot's conclusions are partly based on his own opinions.

5. Instruction should be given in schools established for the purpose and not in libraries themselves.
6. Schools for training the higher categories should be attached to universities.
7. Other schools may be independent but should be well endowed with equipment and situated near a large library.
8. Diplomas must be officially recognized.
9. Large libraries may have *cours de perfectionnement* for their own assistants but should not recruit by means of voluntary apprenticeships.¹⁰
10. For the librarians of small towns the national library associations should organize correspondence courses or publish manuals of librarianship.
11. Practical work is as important as theory.
12. Candidates should be examined for professional aptitude before training begins; the qualities to be looked for are a love of order and method, adaptability, capacity for rapid assimilation of different kinds of knowledge, aptitude for bibliographical research, ability to guide the public, etc.
13. Instructors should possess full professional and teaching qualifications.
14. In the pupils intelligence should be regarded as of more importance than the possession of diplomas. Except in special libraries a broad encyclopedic education is of more value than one which is deep and specialized. For higher posts an advanced education, equivalent to the intermediate standard of the *licence ès lettres* or *licence ès sciences*, should be regarded as necessary.
15. The time is not yet ripe for the establishment of an international school of training, hinted at in the questionnaire, though the success of the American School in Paris should be borne in mind.
16. National library associations should endeavor to interest educational bodies in the use of libraries by means of lectures to university students, teachers in training, etc.

It is obvious at once that on several of the points made in Dr. Henriot's conclusions, especially in Nos. 4, 5, 6, 9, and 14, there is at present no general agreement; in fact, it is safe to say that many of them are still matters of dispute. Admittedly the survey is one of individual opinions, by no means shared necessarily even by the majority of the profession. Its importance lies not so much in the actual opinions expressed as in the fact that so many representative librarians were willing to express an opinion at all.

¹⁰ It is difficult to find a satisfactory translation of the French word "stage," used here in the original. The word "apprenticeship" used here and elsewhere in this article indicates a period of service in an approved library considered as a necessary part of training.

If we examine the systems actually in operation in different countries, we shall find almost everywhere an underlying divergence of opinion as to the value of practical and theoretical training, respectively; and the strength of opinion, in one direction or the other, affects both the estimation of the necessary educational background and the subject matter and method of professional training as well. Those whom we may term the "theoreticalists" insist always on an advanced standard of education, either general or special, and place the emphasis of the professional training on the more theoretical subjects, e.g., history of the book, paleography, bibliography, etc., giving often all too little attention to the technical subjects, such as cataloging, classification, administration, etc. They believe that the most important side of librarianship, i.e., the bibliographical side, can best be taught by means of formal lectures and that what remains—the technical and administrative duties—can be learned, at least up to a point, by means of seminars or classes in which the subjects are dealt with less formally perhaps but nonetheless theoretically. By these means the intelligent and well-educated student can reach a standard sufficient for his employment as a beginner in a modern library. Such practical work as is added to the course as a condition for the receipt of a diploma or for admission to a qualifying examination is regarded less as a part of the instruction than as a probationary period, designed to test the student's ability to put into practice what he has learned and generally to adapt himself to the conditions of everyday working life.

On the other hand, the "practicalists" claim that librarianship can be learned only by actual experience and that such theoretical instruction as is given is only supplementary to and an explanation of what the student is learning by actual accomplishment. Their claim is based on an assumption, not always admitted, that there is no existing sum of knowledge constituting librarianship²² and hence that no formal instruction can contain all the elements of knowledge that can and should be acquired by experience. This school of thought, then, assum-

²² Cf. Ladewig, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

ing as it does the supreme importance of administration, often disregards the necessity for advanced education or even regards education as a hindrance to the acquisition of proficiency in routine duties. It prefers, in fact, the recruitment of intelligent but uneducated individuals who, by reason of their lack of developed critical faculties, are all the more susceptible to instruction by command and example, by the system of the parade ground, in which certain movements are brought to perfection by constant practice but the recruit is not told why such movements are necessary. Far better results, it is thought, can be obtained when the junior assistant is selected at an early age—on leaving school, or, at the latest, on graduation—and plunged at once into the duties of a library, there to learn by blood and tears how each little task should be performed quickly and accurately, than when he is given merely theoretical instruction in an academic atmosphere remote from practical routine.

This opposition of opinion is a commonplace, not only in librarianship but in many other professions as well. In Great Britain a hundred years ago the same struggle was going on among members of the medical profession, between those who advocated better preliminary education and well-organized instruction in medical schools of university status and those who still clung to the old apprentice system. More recently the same sort of problem engaged the attention of the architectural profession—the problem of the reconciliation of the qualifications recognized as necessary by the training school and those recognized by the practicing architect. Now it is the turn of the library profession, and it may take a generation to reach a solution.

While there exists, no doubt, among the practicalists a certain amount of genuine disbelief in the value of formal education and training, coupled with jealousy and suspicion of those whose experience includes them, the problem is, for the most part, an economic one. Wherever there is a well-to-do class which can afford the best education and full-time training and wherever the eventual rewards are sufficient, a profession will readily

adopt a systematic method of training, because a constant stream of able recruits will be available. The same result will occur generally when education and training are cheap enough to be within the reach of all or most of those who can make intelligent use of these facilities; in this case, however, unless recruitment is controlled, overcrowding may lead to a cheapening of the profession generally and consequently to a falling-off in the quality of those who seek admission to it. In the United States and in some European countries the second of these conditions exists, with the result that there is little or no class consciousness or division of the profession into groups of those who have and those who have not. In Great Britain, on the other hand, education, though no longer the privilege of the wealthy, is still a luxury to many, and in the percentage of university graduates among the whole population our country does not hold a high place. It is natural, where so many members of the profession have in the past been unable to obtain an advanced education, that there should exist a prejudice against it and often a complete misunderstanding of its value; and when such is the attitude toward education, formal training is not likely to enjoy any better reputation.

Nevertheless, while the viewpoints of the practicalist and the theoreticalist, respectively, prevail more strongly in one country than in another, it must not be thought that Europe is in any sense divided into two camps. It is true that the point of view of the practicalist is more marked in, for instance, Great Britain, Norway, Belgium, and Switzerland, while the theoreticalists seem to prevail in France, Italy, and Czechoslovakia. In several countries, however—especially in Germany, Austria, and others coming under the influence of German ideas and methods—a compromise is reached combining a long stage of practical work with the formal instruction of a training school. We may usefully examine in some detail one or two of the more typical systems adopted in the three groups.

In the first group, which emphasizes practice as opposed to theory, the case of Norway is particularly interesting. Here we have a country well equipped with libraries but scarcely pos-

sessing a personnel large enough to render it economically possible to establish a national training school, and those who have desired formal training have been compelled to go to the United States or England for it. In 1929 the American library schools had received ninety-three Norwegian pupils for training, but only twenty-nine could be traced as employed in their own country.¹² There remained evidently a considerable surplus of trained material which could not be absorbed in Norway itself, either through lack of vacancies or because of the unwillingness of authorities to accept individuals trained abroad. Certainly the numbers seeking training in the United States and in England are now less than they were, and the tendency is for the larger public libraries to develop their own training systems. The most striking example of internal training is that in force at the University Library, Oslo, described by Dr. W. Munthe.¹³ Dr. Munthe is strongly opposed to foreign training. "Der 'amerikanische' Bibliothekar," he says, "kommt in die kleinen norwegischen Verhältnisse zurück, den Kopf vollgestopft von amerikanischen Theorien, Sachen und Büchern, aber von heimischen Dingen hat er nichts zugelernt." So recruitment in this library is effected by means of semivoluntary apprenticeships or probationary periods. Candidates are admitted on passing the preliminary philosophical examination or the first examination in theology, philology, or natural sciences, and each is placed in charge of a senior official who gives him elementary instruction for two hours each day. After two months the candidate can be employed for three hours per day, receiving an honorarium of Kr. 100 a month. Later he takes a fourteen-day cataloging course. The next step is promotion to the position of library assistant, involving three and a half hours' service per day and an honorarium of Kr. 200 per month. This position lasts for three years, at the end of which the candidate is expected to find a permanent full-time post either in the University Library

¹² *Rôle et formation du bibliothécaire*, p. 276.

¹³ "Die bibliothekarische Ausbildung in Norwegen," *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, L (1933), 177-79. The article is summarized in *Rôle et formation du bibliothécaire*, pp. 273-74.

or elsewhere, but, if he has not done so, the probationary appointment may be renewed for a further three years. In the meantime he is expected to complete work for his Master's or Doctor's degree, and, adds Dr. Munthe, "ist er fertiger Kandidat, wird er gewöhnlich voll beschäftigt werden." We may well believe it. It is true that, apart from the elementary instruction in the first two months of the course, there is no formal instruction in library technique, but a considerable portion of each working day is to be consumed in work which may be both physically and mentally arduous, and candidates must find it a matter of some difficulty to give full attention to their academic studies.

Such is the system adopted in the principal learned library. For the public libraries only such courses of training exist as are organized from time to time by the Norwegian Library Association or by the Ministry of Education, or individually by the large public libraries themselves.¹⁴ The general opinion of the Association is expressed in the findings of a committee, which laid down the minimum educational qualification as the *examen artium*, or school graduation certificate, and specified an apprenticeship of six months' full-time work. Great importance is attached by the committee to practical work in all branches of librarianship.

So, too, the program adopted in 1934 by the Association des Bibliothécaires Suisses envisages two examinations, each leading to a certificate—one a certificate of technical proficiency and the other a certificate of advanced studies. These examinations are to be held by the Association and include as subjects for the technical certificate the history of the book, book production, history and administration of libraries, including cataloging and classification, and bibliography. No theoretical instruction is contemplated as a requirement, but candidates must have performed an apprenticeship of one year's duration. Some very short vacation courses have been organized by the Association,¹⁵ but the only theoretical course approaching completeness is that

¹⁴ See *Rôle et formation du bibliothécaire*, pp. 274-75.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 307-12.

of the Ecole d'Etudes Sociales pour Femmes at Geneva, where the two-year course for secretary-librarians involves from seventeen to twenty-one hours a week spent in lectures and class work and is completed by an apprenticeship of one year.¹⁶ Unfortunately, the course is designed only as preparation for the middle grade in library service.

In Belgium, while there exists a regular system of training for public library service, no proper instruction is available for *employés* in the learned libraries, who begin their career with an apprenticeship of one year in either the Royal Library or one of the university libraries (Ghent, Liège, Louvain, or Brussels).

They do not have a systematic theoretical training in any of these five centres, as no courses or lectures are delivered. They have to depend in most cases on the assistance of young librarians who went through the same "ordeal" a few years before or on the good will of the heads of the different departments, who usually supply them with a list of a few works to study.¹⁷

A comprehensive examination is provided for candidates who have completed their probationary period.¹⁸ For candidates seeking admission to the public libraries conditions are better. These, too, are required to pass an examination, and training is provided by the Ecole Centrale de Service Social in a two-year course, the first year of which is general and the second devoted to theoretical librarianship and practical work. A third year is devoted entirely to practical work.¹⁹ The librarianship course includes psychology, economics, and social questions as well as technical studies and the history of literature.

And what of Great Britain? Here, too, the emphasis has been on the practical side of library training from the time when the Library Association instituted its examination system, in 1893, to the present day. It is an odd feature of the English system that the so-called "Education Committee" of the Association, while exercising the strictest control over the examinations and endeavoring to maintain a high standard in

¹⁶ Ecole d'Etudes Sociales, *Programme des cours de l'année 1935-1936*.

¹⁷ From a private letter to the present writer.

¹⁸ *Rôle et formation du bibliothécaire*, pp. 87-91.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 101-2.

them, has never given more than scanty attention to training.²⁰ The most that can be said is that the Committee gives its blessing to various locally organized courses of lectures and summer schools and to the correspondence courses provided by the Association of Assistant Librarians' Section. Candidates for the examinations are expected to prepare for them as best they may, by the study of textbooks and by picking up what theoretical knowledge they can in the course of their everyday work. Nor was any minimum standard of education established until after the war, and even now the standard considered necessary even for appointments to the highest posts is only that which can be reached by a boy or girl at the age of fifteen or sixteen. In consequence it is not surprising that the percentage of passes in the examinations is extremely low, sometimes as little as twenty-five per cent of the entrants. The examinations after the elementary standard, i.e., the intermediate and final, leading to the Associateship and Fellowship of the Association, respectively, are of adult standard but are taken for the most part by candidates having no formal preparation and unacquainted with the conditions of an adult examination.

Furthermore, the examinations themselves under the present syllabus, instituted in 1933, are based almost entirely on the assumption that a practical knowledge of technique is of the first importance. Apart from an easy paper on English literary history in the elementary examination and a more difficult one of about intermediate university standard in the final, with a three-hour paper on historical bibliography, no attention is given to theoretical subjects, while the intermediate examination is entirely technical. In addition, three years' salaried service is required to complete the qualifications necessary for the Associateship and Fellowship, but this period of service is not in any sense probationary nor does it necessarily include any instructional period in a library of good standing.

The whole system, in fact, reflects both the staunch individualism of the English character, which refuses to submit readily to a stereotyped form of training, and the keen interest taken by

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 210.

the majority of the profession in technique and administration rather than in the distribution of knowledge.²¹ The English librarian stresses the administrative side of his work, the cataloging and classification of books and their storage, the planning of equipment and buildings, often to the detriment of the bibliographical side and of actual knowledge of the contents of books. It is perhaps unfortunate that the words of Carlyle, "The true university of these days is a collection of books," should have been so often remembered and quoted by our profession.

Under the Association's new syllabus, which comes into force in 1938, an attempt is being made to lessen the emphasis on technical matters by reducing the number of papers in these subjects and introducing, in the intermediate examination, a paper in which some knowledge of the contents of books in general and of reference books in particular is to be required. In addition, candidates for the Fellowship are to be required to write a short thesis and to undergo an oral examination, which will be a test of general intelligence and administrative ability. At the same time the distribution of subjects over the intermediate and final examinations will be more even, and thus to some extent the criticism of Milkau, that the examinations are not a unity, will be met.²² No attempt is being made to strengthen the educational qualifications of candidates for entrance to the profession or for the examinations.

Only once did the profession seriously give its attention to training. During the heroic war years, when our thoughts turned to the prospect of making a better world for those

²¹ See the present writer's article, "The English librarian," in a forthcoming *Festschrift* in honor of Dr. Marcel Godet. Cf., too, Dr. Leipprand's criticism of the American standpoint, which might be equally applied to Great Britain: "Da der beispiellose Aufstieg der amerikanischen Bibliotheken in erster Linie auf organisatorischen Leistungen beruht, ist es verständlich, dass die Bibliothekstechnik dort viel intensiver betrieben wird als etwa in Deutschland, und dass auf der anderen Seite die wissenschaftliche Schulung des Bibliothekars vernachlässigt wurde," *op. cit.* (p. 492). A further illustration of this point of view is contained in the [British] Ministry of Labour's "Choice of careers series," No. 11, *Librarianship* (1935), p. 9: "The librarian must above all be interested in the method of conducting a library."

²² *Op. cit.*, p. 707.

fortunate enough to return to civilian life, a movement was begun for the establishment of a school of librarianship. The supporters of the scheme based their arguments on the plain fact that the number of successful candidates in the examinations was insufficient to meet the needs of the existing libraries and on the corollary that many of the candidates were not sufficiently advanced in education to undertake the examinations. On the whole, the profession was substantially agreed on the need for a school and on the advisability of its connection with the University of London. Under pressure from the Library Association and from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which guaranteed the financial security of the school for ten years, the Committee of University College agreed to establish a school, though somewhat reluctantly in view of the poor support given by the profession to the lecture courses organized by the London School of Economics before the war.

No sorer story could be told than that of the unseemly wrangle that followed. Admittedly there were faults on both sides. The two-year course leading to the University diploma included insufficient practical instruction to carry conviction, and the low salaries prevalent in the profession made it difficult for the School to attract competent students. Much damage was done to the reputation of the School by the output of students of inferior quality and by the efforts made to secure for successful candidates highly paid posts for which they were scarcely qualified. On the other hand, no attempt was made by the profession to establish grades into which trained assistants could enter at adequate salaries, while any attempt on their part to secure poorly paid positions was condemned as "under-cutting," and any success in obtaining well-paid appointments was regarded as an injustice to junior members of the profession. Whatever he did, the trained assistant was in the wrong. Nor was he even regarded as trained. Ridiculous and malicious statements were made about the standard of the School's examinations, and the success of educated young men and women in them was declared to be due merely to the ease of acquiring the University diploma. If any student did succeed in

obtaining a post, unsympathetic treatment by other members of the staff and even by chief librarians frequently caused him to do less than justice to himself.

In the meantime the School steadily won some reputation among such libraries as were appreciative of education as well as of the *Fingerfertigkeit* referred to by Dr. Leipprand; but the lack of interest or even hostility remains widespread among the municipal libraries, and little progress can be made in the improvement of the professional status until the Association can induce a changed attitude on the part of the majority of its members.

Beginning with the session 1935-36, a revised syllabus was adopted for the School.²³ The general effect of this was to make the course more truly a synthesis of theoretical and practical work. The time provided for technical studies, such as cataloging and classification, was greatly extended, reference work was added, and an apprenticeship of three weeks took the place of lectures in routine. At the same time English literature was eliminated for postgraduate students, and all pupils were required to show a knowledge of Latin, German, and French. In order to bridge the gap between purely academic studies and the technique of librarianship, postgraduate students are now required to submit a bibliographical thesis on some subject of their own choosing, preferably connected with their previous academic work, the results being judged very largely according to the candidate's proof of his capacity for accurate presentation of the results of bibliographical research. Much of the work produced in the first session was of very high quality.

Thus the School's syllabus as it stands now represents a compromise between the viewpoints of the practicalist and the theoreticalist, and, given candidates of the right temperament and intelligence, it should be of a character to provide a thorough training for all branches of the profession.

At the other extreme, representing the position of the theoreticalist, stand the Ecole des Chartes and the Diplôme Technique de Bibliothécaire, established by decree of the French

²³ Described in the *Library Association record*, II (4th ser., 1935), 274-76.

minister of education in 1932.²⁴ Both the examination regulations and the Ecole des Chartes have been severely criticized,²⁵ on the ground that far too much emphasis is placed on historical subjects. It is only natural that an institution like the Ecole des Chartes, founded especially for the training of archivists, should display little interest in the technique of modern librarianship. Nonetheless, the Ecole enjoyed from 1829 to 1846 the right to fill the vacancies in half the great public libraries in the country, and since 1846 the right to one-third of the posts available; yet it has never seriously undertaken the preparation of candidates for these positions. In 1932, under pressure from the Association des Bibliothécaires Français, the Ecole adopted a special course designed to prepare for the state diploma. This consists of lectures arranged according to the following schedule:

Hours

30.....	Technique et histoire du livre, bibliographie générale, bibliographie historique
2.....	Bibliographie juridique
2.....	Bibliographie scientifique
1.....	Local et mobilier des bibliothèques
2.....	Acquisition des livres par les bibliothèques
6.....	Rédaction des catalogues des bibliothèques
1.....	Classement et conservation des livres
1.....	Communication des livres
1.....	Bibliothèques municipales
1.....	Bibliothèques universitaires
1.....	Bibliothèques populaires
1.....	Bibliothèques étrangères
1.....	Bibliothèques de documentation d'affaires

The extraordinarily unequal distribution of the time permitted for the historical and technical subjects in this program speaks for itself. If further comment is needed, the following quotations from letters written in 1933 by an eminent French librarian will be sufficient:

²⁴ *Rôle et formation du bibliothécaire*, pp. 184-90. See also *Notice sur le diplôme technique de bibliothécaire* (Paris: Ecole des Chartes, 1936).

²⁵ E.g., in *Rôle et formation*, p. 190; Milkau, *op. cit.*, II, 689-90; Leipprand, *op. cit.*; A. Boutillier du Retail, "La Formation des bibliothécaires et les centres de documentation," in Institut International de Documentation, *Le Congrès du quarantenaire à Copenhague*, 1935.

Le Conseil de l'Ecole ne se rend nullement compte que cet enseignement est notoirement insuffisant. Il est vrai que bien peu de personnes en France comprennent la complexité des problèmes que présente la gestion d'une bibliothèque. ... Ce qui me paraît notoirement insuffisant c'est le nombre des leçons: dans un nombre si restreint d'heures, on ne peut pratiquer qu'un enseignement tout à fait rudimentaire, qui ne correspond nullement, ni à la culture générale des étudiants, de qui on exige des diplômes, ni aux nombreuses matières portées au programme du concours, ni à la qualité de l'Ecole des Chartes, qui est un établissement d'enseignement supérieur.

Actually the examination regulations do not require a very advanced educational standard: "Les candidats doivent justifier du baccalauréat de l'enseignement secondaire, ou du brevet supérieur de l'enseignement primaire, ou d'un titre français ou étranger jugé équivalent."²⁶ Nor is any extended period of practical work exacted; there is an apprenticeship of three months, reduced to two in the case of pupils of the Ecole des Chartes.²⁷ It is scarcely surprising, therefore, that many representatives of up-to-date opinion should be in revolt against the present system and that attempts are being made to institute more thorough methods of training. One of these is the course organized by M. Gabriel Henriot, Conservateur de la Bibliothèque Forney, which supplements the tuition given at the Ecole des Chartes. This course, held at the Institut Catholique, includes both administrative and technical subjects and emphasizes particularly the problems of popular libraries; the time devoted to it is about three hundred hours for lectures and six hundred hours for practical work, during a period of eight months. Another move toward the modernization of library training in France is indicated by the proposal, also made by M. Henriot, for a special school for training in documentation.²⁸

²⁶ *Arrêté ministériel du 22 février, 1932*, art. 2. The article is also quoted in *Revue des bibliothèques*, XLI (1931), 353.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, art. 4.

²⁸ "La Formation professionnelle des documentalistes," in *Maison de la Chimie, Conférences organisées à l'occasion de l'exposition de l'outillage documentaire du 28 mars au 2 avril, 1935*, pp. 18-24. The scheme is contained also in *Documentation en France, bulletin mensuel de l'Union française des organismes de documentation* [UFOD], No. 4 (1934), pp. 8-14.

Very similar to the conditions in France are those existing in Spain²⁹ and Italy.³⁰ In both countries paleography, archives, philology, and the history of literature are strongly represented in the examinations and courses of training, and training for librarianship is combined with that for archivists and museum assistants. Even the Barcelona school, which more nearly approaches American models and includes in its program a considerable amount of practical work, lays great stress on knowledge of classical languages and devotes much time to such subjects as the history of civilization, the history of Catalonia, the history of art, Spanish, Catalan, and general literature, etc.³¹

Finally, an interesting example of the standpoint of the theoreticalist is furnished by Czechoslovakia, a country which enjoys practically complete state control both of training and of appointment. Here, where all is new and freedom but lately won, the people seem more ready than in most democratic countries to submit to somewhat stringent government regulation. The conditions are briefly described in *Rôle et formation*.³² The principal course of training is that provided at the Charles University at Prague. It extends over two years, the first year of which includes instruction in general library science, legislation, administration, bibliography, cataloging, and the history of Czech libraries; the second year, open only to those who have passed the first examination and seek admission to the higher grade in the learned libraries, carries a syllabus including press law and copyright, the administration of learned and special libraries, special bibliography and cataloging, history of foreign libraries, and the history of printing. An apprenticeship of four weeks only is required for admission to the state examinations. The parallel course provided by the so-called "state" library school and discontinued in 1926 included historical and practical

²⁹ *Rôle et formation*, pp. 141-53.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 235-56.

³¹ "S'hi dona gran importància a l'estudi de les llengües clàssiques, per tal d'aconseguir un to de formació humanista" (*Generalitat de Catalunya. Escola de Bibliotecàries, 1936-1937*, p. 17).

³² Pp. 313-19.

bibliography, history of education, library law, cataloging, administration, Czech literature, book-binding, and the editing of a village or local history. This course was intended mainly for candidates entering public library service. Since its discontinuance most of such candidates have taken the first year of the university course. Neither course includes any assigned practical work, though in actual fact many candidates perform voluntary apprenticeships in one of the public university libraries of Prague, Brno, or Bratislava, or in the municipal library at Prague.

While the systems already discussed tend toward the standpoint of either the theoreticalist or the practicalist, the middle course, representing a compromise between the two schools of thought, is found most fully developed in the central European countries, especially in Germany.³³ In such countries not only are the examinations generally in the care of the state departments of education, but training is markedly differentiated according to the grade to which the candidate seeks admission, i.e., the higher or middle grade in learned libraries or the public library service. For the higher grade in learned libraries there is stronger emphasis on historical and bibliographical subjects than for the other services. Under the Prussian regulations, for instance, the subjects of study are history of languages, history of education, systematization of knowledge, Latin paleography, manuscripts and their transmission, illumination and miniature, history of printing, history of the book trade, library law, history and theory of bibliography, book-binding, and history of libraries. The regulations prescribe in addition an apprenticeship of two years, one spent in a university or high-school library and one, combined with lectures at the university on the theoretical subjects, in the state library at Berlin. The practical work in the state library is carried out under supervision in various departments in rotation. The two-year apprenticeship

³³ For Germany see *Rôle et formation*, pp. 47-72. This, however, is mainly a summary of the more extended account in Milkau, *op. cit.*, pp. 650-76. For Austria see *Rôle et formation*, pp. 73-85.

has been criticized as too long³⁴ and certainly might be reduced with advantage on economic grounds. In Bavaria the apprenticeship is shorter, being limited to eighteen months, nine to be spent either at the state library, the university library, or the technical high-school library in Munich, and nine at the state library only. In Austria the apprenticeship is of similar length, and six months, combined with theoretical work, must be spent at the national library in Vienna.³⁵ Here the subjects of lectures, with the total hours spent on each, are as follows:

	Hours
1. General introduction (cataloging and bibliographical reference)	168
2. Administration, planning, equipment, routine.	12
3. Paleography and manuscripts	40
4. History and theory of bibliography	14
5. History and technique of printing	20
6. Illustration	10
7. Binding	20
8. Book trade	6
9. History of libraries	12
10. <i>Ex libris</i>	4
11. Systematization of knowledge	8
12. Law of literary production	4
13. Popular libraries	2
14. General survey of languages	2

In Saxony, under the regulations of 1932,³⁶ the apprenticeship may be completed in any of thirty-three libraries, not necessarily Saxon, approved by the minister of education, and attendance at the lectures provided by the University of Leipzig, though recommended, is not compulsory.

For the middle grade in learned libraries the apprenticeships vary from one and a half to four years, with attendance at lectures in one of the recognized schools of librarianship, e.g., Cologne or Berlin. In Prussia three years' preparation is exacted, one and a half in a recognized school of librarianship, one

³⁴ Liepprand, *op. cit.*, pp. 490-502.

³⁵ See J. Bick, "Ausbildungsplan für die Kandidaten des wissenschaftlichen und mittleren Bibliotheksdienstes in Österreich," *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, L (1933), 169-77.

³⁶ *Verordnung über die Annahme, Ausbildung und Prüfung der Volontäre für den wissenschaftlichen Bibliotheksdienst vom 21. März, 1932.*

in a library of the kind in which the candidate seeks employment, and six months in a library of another kind. The weakness of the Prussian system, according to Milkau, is the combination of the training and examination for the middle grade of learned libraries with that for public libraries.³⁷ So, too, there is some feeling that special provision should be made for the training of assistants for the public libraries of large towns, as distinct from the training for other learned libraries, with a separate examination. Preparation for this career, it is suggested, should include apprenticeships of one year in a learned library and one in a public library.³⁸ For both the middle-grade and the public-library service examinations the Prussian regulations stress the technical subjects. In actual practice the eighteen months' course of training is generally divided as follows:

First semester, first term—Theoretical work combined with practice in popular libraries

First term, second term—Theoretical work

Second semester, first term—Practical work in other libraries

Second semester, second term—Practical work in other libraries

Third semester, first term—Practical work in an information center

Third semester, second term—Theoretical work

Special conditions are attached to the training for public library service at the Deutsche Volksbüchereischule at Leipzig, where the director, Dr. W. Hofmann, has developed by his almost fanatical enthusiasm a theory of the public librarian's place in the field of librarianship which is quite foreign to the usual German conception of the status of this branch of the service.³⁹

Dr. Hofmann's course lasts two years, one of which is devoted to theoretical work and one to practical work. The minimum age for entry is twenty, but actually the average age of admis-

³⁷ Prussian regulations of September 24, 1930 (art. 6); see Milkau, *op. cit.*, II, 686.

³⁸ W. van der Biele, "Der Ausbildungsplan des akademisch vorgebildeten Bibliothekars an kommunalen Büchereien," *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, L (1933), 182-87.

³⁹ W. Hofmann, *Der Volksbibliothekar: seine Arbeitsgebiete und seine Ausbildung* (Leipzig, 1934). See also, Institut für Leser- und Schrifttumskunde, Leipzig (Deutsche Volksbüchereischule), *Systematischer Ausbildungsplan*, 1934.

sion is twenty-five, since the director believes strongly that candidates must have a "call" for public librarianship and should have some experience of education or social work. Special emphasis is placed on the study of readers' psychology and the use of the *Leserheft*, or individual record of books read by each person.

In Austria courses of training for public library service, though not yet fully developed, are much influenced by the principles of the Leipzig school. Recently, for instance, the national Ministry of Education has organized a three months' introductory course for employees in the public libraries, in which the distribution of subjects and hours spent on each are as follows:

	Hours
1. Book production.....	3
2. Men's reading interests.....	1
3. Women's reading interests.....	1
4. Library stock:	
a) Nonfiction, by subjects.....	8
b) Fiction, poetry, drama, etc., Austrian, German, and foreign.....	21
5. Administration, with instruction through groups with practical exercises.....	14
6. Excursions, etc.....	8

A more advanced course was proposed for the year 1936. Similar in scope are the courses for workers in adult and in children's libraries provided by the Verein Arbeiterbüchereien in Vienna for its own employees.⁴⁰ The adult course lasts four months and includes:

	Hours
1. Adult education.....	4
2. Administration.....	16
3. Library stock:	
a) German literature before 1850.....	4
b) Modern German literature.....	16
c) Modern Austrian and foreign literature.....	36
4. Reading interests.....	4
5. Book production.....	4
6. Practical work, excursions, etc.....	8

⁴⁰ *Arbeitsblatt der Wiener Arbeiterbüchereien. Sondernummer: Tätigkeitsbericht 1935, No. 4* (June 20, 1936).

The children's librarianship course lasts two months, and the curriculum is as follows:

	Hours
1. Introductory: The children's librarian as educator	4
2. Child psychology and related subjects	6
3. Children's literature: Administration	10
4. Extension work with children: Play evenings, lectures, story hours, etc.	16
5. Practical work, excursions, etc.	6

Both courses conclude with examinations, success in which is a requirement for permanent employment with the Verein Arbeiterbüchereien. The total number of students to June, 1936, was 229, of whom 183 had passed completely and 20 had been referred.

We find, then, in the German-speaking countries a determination to separate training for the three kinds of service—learned, technical, and public—and a tendency to stress the subjects most appropriate to each of them. In every kind of training, however, much emphasis is placed on the value of practical instruction, without losing sight of the importance of theoretical studies.

If we may learn any lessons from the variety of standards and methods so far reached in Europe, and I think some general principles are forthcoming, they might be presented in the following way:

1. In the most satisfactory systems already established, education up to a fairly high standard is considered necessary. This may be reached by means of university studies, at any rate in the case of candidates for the highest positions, but even in countries like Great Britain, where university education is not highly estimated by the majority of the profession, it is at least recognized that those who seek advancement must somehow become cultured, though the profession is not clear as to how this object is to be attained.

2. It is generally suggested—wrongly, I think—that the librarian's education should be as broad as possible;⁴ wrongly,

⁴ Cf. Henriot, *op. cit.*, p. 153 (Conclusions, No. 14, quoted above, p. 173), and Ladewig, *op. cit.*, pp. 30–31, who says that, whereas the *Fachbibliothekar* should develop a deep knowledge, the general librarian must acquire a broad knowledge.

because, in the first place, no individual can hope now to be acquainted with the whole field of knowledge, and, second, because a really deep study of a narrow subject or of a small group of closely related subjects constitutes a much more thorough training in the critical appreciation of material than the superficial acquaintance with several departments of knowledge, such as may at first sight appear useful in librarianship. The man or woman who has wrestled with and mastered one subject is much more likely to be sympathetic and helpful to others who are going through the same process in quite another department. At the same time we may hope and expect that the librarian will tend, in the course of his professional life, to widen his background of actual knowledge and especially to increase his acquaintance with bibliographical resources, methods of research, the means for the distribution of knowledge, and the application of literature to the satisfaction of social and recreational needs. Milkau says:

[Der Bibliothekar] braucht nicht das Tamulische lesen zu können, wie Goethe [*Gespräche*, ed. Biedermann (Leipzig, 1909), p. 541] es ihm glücklicherweise bescheinigt hat. Aber er muss dem Besucher, der zum Tamulischen will oder zu anderen seltsamen Dingen strebt, ohne Aufenthalt den Weg zeigen können, und er muss nicht allein eine geschlossene Summe von Kenntnissen sein eigen nennen, wie sie nur durch ordnungsmässiges Universitätsstudium vermittelt werden, sondern auch, was noch wichtiger, weil fruchtbarer, ist, ein Wissen besitzen von den Wegen, auf denen sie errungen wurden, wie von den Wegen, auf denen sie weiter zu fördern sind.⁴²

3. Whatever view we may take as to the best form of preliminary education, however, let us keep education separate from professional training and not crowd our curriculums with subjects which, however desirable in themselves, are not truly a part of technical or bibliographical training. Of education we cannot have too much, whatever branch of librarianship concerns us, and, if we consider a university education desirable for senior or responsible assistants in learned libraries, the patrons of which are generally in a position to know what they want and to help themselves, it is all the more desirable in the public libraries of the British or American type, which aim at

⁴² *Op. cit.*, p. 647.

the service of every member of the public—the uneducated and the educated, the student and the scholar, the professional or business man and the seeker after recreation or information.

4. Training in librarianship should be an extension of the understanding of the methods used in the transmission and distribution of knowledge—an understanding which should already have been partly reached by the student if his education has been carried out on the right lines. Our main problem, then, is to deepen the appreciation of all forms of record as the material of knowledge, and to teach the methods of preserving, classifying, and making them available for use. The editors of *Rôle et formation du bibliothécaire* say:

Les futurs bibliothécaires doivent posséder deux qualités essentielles: le sens de l'ordre et celui de la responsabilité. Le sens de l'ordre en ce qui concerne les bibliothèques n'est pas révélé seulement par les épreuves écrites et orales d'un concours, ni même par la connaissance des habitudes personnelles des candidats, différentes de celles de la vie de bureau. Il faut chercher ce sens surtout dans la formation de l'esprit qui pousse toujours à établir un ordre là où il n'y en a pas, à simplifier et à rendre toujours plus pratiques et plus immédiatement utiles les diverses opérations auxquelles donne lieu le travail des bibliothécaires.⁴³

The sense of order and the sense of responsibility are largely matters of temperament, and the discovery of them is a difficult task; they can be brought to light probably only by careful observation throughout courses involving a mixture of theoretical and practical work.

5. In these times our training must not be confined to the appreciation of books alone and the methods of distributing them to the public. The record of knowledge has widened so as to include many other forms beside the book, and the modern theory of documentation, defined as the collection, preservation, and distribution of knowledge, though only a restatement of the real purpose of librarianship, emphasizes the attention which must be paid to what is sometimes called "nonbook" material—reports, films, specimens, etc.—anything, in fact, which can be used as evidence. Training must be related, there-

⁴³ Pp. 22 and 23.

fore, through bibliographical methods and the application of the principles of classification and cataloging, to all kinds of material. Speaking at the Second International Conference on Libraries and Bibliography at Madrid in 1935, Señor Ortega y Gasset, in a speech which displays an appreciation of the problems of librarianship not always shared by librarians, referred to the growing menace to civilization caused by the enormous literary output of the present day. Quoting Chateaubriand's remark: "L'invasion des idées a succédé à l'invasion des barbares; la civilisation actuelle, décomposée, se perd en elle-même"⁴⁴ he says: "Voici donc le drame; le livre est indispensable à cette altitude de l'histoire; mais le livre est en danger, parce qu'il est devenu un danger pour l'homme."⁴⁵ His remarks carry even more weight when extended to cover the whole field of documentary record.

6. We must add to whatever courses we may institute concerned with bibliography, reference work, book selection, cataloging, and classification some instruction on the physical means of storage and distribution, that is, of administration. I am unable to determine in what respect library administration differs from the administration of any other institution. The problems involved are those concerned with the government of the library, such as committee work, law, finance, the selection of personnel for rapid and intelligent service, the planning of buildings and equipment, etc.—problems, in fact, which are common to all kinds of institutional service and differ only in the particular application of service to the use of a certain kind of material, viz., books and other documents. We should not, therefore, lay too great stress on the teaching of administration in the early stages of training. An understanding of such problems and the methods of solving them will come best by observation and experience, followed by special courses taken at a period when the assistant is reaching the time for promotion to positions of administrative responsibility. In so far as teaching is possible in such subjects, it should be carried out by means of

⁴⁴ *Mémoires d'outre-tombe* (éd. Biré), VI, 450.

⁴⁵ *Archives et bibliothèques*, I (1935), 80.

small classes or seminars under the leadership of an experienced librarian.

7. Training should be carried out in schools established for the purpose and, for the sake of the status of the profession, of university standing. Such schools will best be able to provide for the theoretical training in bibliography and methods of research and through their university connections should be closely in touch with those actually engaged in research. They can also synthesize the results of experience gained in actual library work and should keep in close contact with the development of administrative and other methods in the libraries of the country. One means of contact is used by most library schools in the appointment of part-time lecturers who are themselves engaged in library work. The program of a school should include a certain amount of practical work, i.e., actual experience by the student of the working conditions and methods of an up-to-date library, not merely for the attainment of Dr. Leipprand's *Fingerfertigkeit* but to prepare the student for his place as part of an administrative machine. Preferably the apprenticeship or period of practical work should form an integral part of the course, as it does in the German schools, and should not be left to chance opportunities for temporary employment or voluntary service in libraries which may not give good training or which may take advantage of the students' services without offering sound instruction in exchange. Training entirely by apprenticeship is unsound for two reasons: first, the student's experience is limited to the methods of one library and even perhaps of one department, and, second, no adequate instruction can be given by senior members of a busy library unless the staff is much more numerous than is usually the case.

AMERICAN INFLUENCE ON EUROPEAN LIBRARIANSHIP

ARNE KILDAL

THE subject of American influence on European librarianship is so far-reaching and varied that it is impossible to deal with it at full length in a periodical article. It must be hoped, however, that a few glimpses of this influence as demonstrated in certain countries may throw some light on a subject which is significant and interesting enough to be made the object of a scholarly treatment in the form of a dissertation or other scientific work.

As is usually conceded, the general introduction of the public library has been earlier and its development more rapid in the United States, and it has been more thoroughly popularized there than elsewhere in the world. Not merely local legislation, but even more so certain other factors following the legal enactments, have been instrumental in securing a swift and steady development of the American public library since the seventies of the last century. Among these factors should be mentioned particularly the formation of national and state bodies of librarians, beginning with the American Library Association in 1876; the remarkable donations of Andrew Carnegie, amounting to over forty million dollars; the entry of certain men of outstanding ability into the library profession, like Melvil Dewey who published the first edition of his *Decimal Classification* and started the *Library journal* in the same year in which the national association of librarians was founded; the systematization of professional training; and the pressure of the general public's demands for free access to popular libraries. The latter factor is not the least significant. The demands of the public have been more forceful in this respect in the United States than in other countries, and this may be due, at least partly, to the fact that the large number of immigrants

nourished a desire to utilize the opportunities of self-education and spiritual growth in their adopted country.

It is natural that the rapid development of the American public library and the initiative and enthusiasm of its leaders should attract attention in the library quarters of other nations. It is safe to say that this interest was first aroused in England, chiefly on account of the identity of language, and it is not merely accidental that the Library Association was founded in England the year after a similar professional body was organized in the United States.

It is true that as early as 1849 William Ewart's public libraries committee in its report emphasized free access to libraries as a popular right and pointed to reforms like the introduction of home loans and printed catalogs, and that Ewart himself, in 1850, succeeded in forcing through Parliament the first public library law. But, nevertheless, the really noteworthy development of British public libraries did not take place until well after the American public library system had been safely established, not merely theoretically, but in practice as well. Among the factors having influenced the development most particularly are the American professional publications, the Carnegie donations, and the travels of British librarians through the United States.

Between the years 1897 and 1913, two hundred and ninety-five modern library buildings, costing over eight million dollars, were erected in England with the help of Carnegie gifts. The buildings were largely planned according to American methods, and, to some extent at least, modern principles were introduced in the practical operation of the libraries from the very start. It is interesting to note, however, that in many places the alleged conservative tendency of the British nation made itself felt in this field also, inasmuch as many of the reforms of the American library world had to wait for years before they were adopted by British libraries. It is sufficient to remind the readers of the fact that even as late as in 1910 the indicator system was in use in the loan departments of certain libraries in England.

Since 1915, when the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust began its activities, the progress of British public libraries has been particularly rapid. The whole national library system has been expanded, and new methods and principles from abroad have been widely adopted; e.g., the Decimal Classification, the dictionary card catalog, the Browne and Newark loan systems, etc. Naturally the methods have been adapted to national needs in many respects, but the origin of manifold systems and labor-saving devices may be traced easily enough. In regard to library training, also, the American influence is clearly discerned. It is true that the Library Association started its first courses as early as 1885, but in the plans of present British library schools the prototype is distinctly American. A further analysis of American influence on British librarianship and the contrast between the two library worlds will be found in the publication issued in London in 1927: *Some impressions of the public library system of the United States of America. Papers by six of the British delegates to the Jubilee Conference in Atlantic City, October, 1926.*

The library worlds of the German-speaking countries have been comparatively little influenced by American librarianship. It is typical that open shelves are exceptions in German libraries even today and that as a general rule the public has to pay a small fee for the privilege of borrowing books. However, during the last few years certain reforms have been introduced which may have been influenced in part by standards overseas. A complete centralization of the German library system is under way, with a main office in Berlin for Prussia (Preussische Landesstelle) and forty county libraries (Beratungsstellen) which circulate books to other libraries in the country. The system includes printed catalog cards and other technical devices of American origin.

An American influence may be seen in Austria as early as the eighties of the last century, in the reorganization of the libraries of Vienna by Dr. Eduard Reyer. It may safely be maintained that Dr. Reyer largely acquired his enthusiasm for library work in America after a year's stay, although his pro-

fessional qualifications were too limited to enable him to grasp all the advantages of the principles of the American library world. In his book, *Volkesbibliotheken*, and in other publications, he presented an extensive review of the work of American and English public libraries. The methods he made use of in his Verein Zentral-Bibliothek and other organizations which he started were decidedly old-fashioned, however, and did not meet the demands of the time, but his spirit and enthusiasm have contributed to the development of the library system of his native land.

The formation of the American Library Association in 1876 led to a futile attempt at organizing a similar professional association shortly afterward in Holland, but apparently the time was not ripe for it and the plans did not then materialize. With the turn of the century a new wave of enthusiasm for American methods swept the country, and a few groups of intelligent citizens decided to form reference collections available to all. Gradually American library principles and methods have found their way into the library system of the country, although it will take considerable time to oust traditional and old-fashioned methods of operation. In 1908 a national library association was formed, and twenty years later a new interest in American methods was awakened by the enthusiastic accounts of a Dutch librarian who spent a year in the United States studying library work there. Children's reading rooms were established, open shelves introduced in some libraries, training courses arranged, a governmental library council put in operation, and some of the modern technical reforms are slowly winning their way.

American library influence in France is particularly centered in the establishment and operation of the American Library in Paris, established in 1920 on the basis of the numerous military libraries which were operated during the war. It is a library specializing in American and English literature and run wholly on the modern American plan. Closely co-operating with French libraries, it has contributed largely to spreading new ideas and a new spirit in the French professional field.

During the five years (1924-29) when it had a library school attached to it (Ecole des Bibliothécaires), that institution contributed constantly to the popular library movement in France. It may be said that the French library movement has been stimulated to a certain degree through the steady contact with the new library viewpoint overseas.

In Russia also the American library influence has made itself felt during recent years. It is sufficient in this connection to quote the statement made by Jessica Smith in her article on libraries in the Union of Soviet Republics as published in Dr. Bostwick's *Popular libraries of the world* (Chicago, 1933):

During 1925 and 1926 the Commissariat for Education made a study of library methods in other countries. The California County free library plan seemed most applicable to Soviet conditions, and, accordingly, Harriet G. Eddy, formerly county library organizer in California, was invited to inspect the Soviet library system. The next step was to send Anna Kravchenko, a library specialist of the Soviet Union, to the United States. On her return widespread library reorganization was undertaken, and in 1930 Miss Eddy was invited to return to help in instituting the new system. Miss Eddy described the beginnings of unified library service in the Soviet Union in the *Library Journal* for January 15, 1932.

The spread of American library methods in Italy was accelerated a few years ago when the papal chair applied for American supervision of the planned reorganization of the catalog department of the Vatican Library in Rome. Dr. J. C. M. Hanson, formerly of the University of Chicago Libraries, has described the negotiations between President Butler of Columbia University and Henry Pritchett of the Carnegie Corporation and the Pope concerning a reorganization of the Vatican library catalogs. As the Pope had been librarian for no less than thirty-four years—and for the latter years in the Vatican itself—it did not prove difficult to arrange matters. Dr. Hanson states that probably it was Dr. W. W. Bishop, librarian of the University of Michigan, who first conceived the idea of a reorganization. At all events, Dr. Bishop, accompanied by the expert catalogers, Dr. Hanson, Dr. Charles Martel, of the Library of Congress, and Dr. William M. Randall, set out for Rome in 1928 to start the gigantic work of remodeling the obsolete and impractical catalog system of the

venerable institution. Shortly afterward they were joined by Mr. John Ansteinsson, of Trondheim, Norway, who had been trained in American library schools and scientific libraries. The work was begun on strict American plans and principles and will be completed in another twenty years or more.

It is probably correct to maintain that outside the English-speaking countries the modern library movement as developed in America first gained a foothold in the northern countries of Europe, and, as far as library enthusiasm and positive results of the newborn spirit are concerned, Norway took the leadership. This is mainly due to the work of two individuals whose names deserve to be known to the world of librarianship. Mr. H. Tambs Lyche had lived in the United States for twelve years when, in 1892, he returned to his native Norway. He started as a railway engineer, but later entered the theological seminary of Meadville, Pennsylvania, and for many years was active as a Unitarian minister in various states. Upon returning to Norway he started his monthly magazine *Kringsjaa*, founded on the same principles as William Stead's *Review of reviews*, and in this publication he proved himself to be a great friend of popular libraries and adult education in its modern aspects.

"Libraries are almost more important than schools," he wrote in one of his magazine articles as early as 1893, continuing:

Municipalities establish water works and gas works, and that is fine. But I dare maintain that it is of still more importance to the welfare of the population that the municipality found good free libraries for the public. . . . For the book contains the material without which human beings of our time are unable to live a complete and satisfactory life.

During the nineties Tambs Lyche continued to publish articles on the public library movement, many of which were translations of material which he found in American periodicals. Included among his translations were papers by J. C. Dana, Herbert Putnam, W. B. Shaw, W. I. Fletcher, and J. L. Harrison. Through these contributions the soil was well prepared for library activities of a practical nature. In 1896 Lyche communicated with two librarians of the University of Oslo, I. B.

Halvorsen and Karl Fischer, and these three men jointly worked out a plan for the reorganization of the old municipal library of Oslo, Deichmanske Bibliotek. The plan was roughly drawn, adhering in the main to modern lines, and was approved by the city authorities in May, 1898, some weeks after the death of Tambs Lyche.

The task of reorganizing the city library of Oslo was bestowed upon Mr. Haakon Nyhuus, a young librarian who had worked in American libraries for eight years, first in the Newberry Library, under the famous William F. Poole, and later in the Chicago Public Library as chief of the new dictionary card catalog of that institution. On returning to his home country in 1897, he was appointed chief librarian of Deichmanske Bibliotek, and the following year he undertook his difficult task.

It may safely be said that Haakon Nyhuus not merely reorganized but completely revolutionized the public library system of the Norwegian capital during his fifteen years as chief librarian. The city library, which dates as far back as 1785, had forty thousand volumes at that time, but the collection was composed mainly of older books of no particular usefulness to a popular library. The technical systems were of the most primitive kind, often even totally lacking catalogs. The reorganizer had to start from the very beginning. New books had to be purchased, cataloging and classification introduced, hours of operation prolonged, reading-room and children's department cared for, card loan system devised, and new and liberal rules for the use of the library introduced. Nyhuus was full of the force and vitality, and also of the impulsiveness, of the New World, and it happened that, in order to push library development, he did not choose the best system in the beginning. On the other hand, he was not afraid of discarding something which he did not find sufficiently useful and practical, and it is typical that during his fifteen years of service he introduced three different loan systems in succession.

In the course of years Nyhuus opened the way to many of the American library inventions and reforms with which he had become acquainted during his stay in the United States:

the Decimal Classification with the Cutter author marks, the Cutter cataloging rules, the Library Bureau standard catalog cards and card cases, the Browne and later the Newark loan systems, delivery stations and branch libraries, etc. It is characteristic that so fully "Americanized" was the Norwegian library reorganizer that he even made an attempt at establishing open-air libraries in the public parks ("park libraries"), but the effort had to be given up, probably because the climate did not seem to favor such a project.

In regard to the introduction of open shelves Mr. Nyhuus seemed to hesitate before venturing a reform. During the first years of his service he made use of a lending system of his own invention, the so-called "safeguarded open access." He retained a long counter between the borrowers and the books, and required patrons to apply to the assistants for books desired. A part of the counter was reserved for cases three shelves high, where the most popular books were kept behind screens, their backs to the readers, who thus could examine the gilt titles through the screens, but could not handle the books. In 1908 the American open-shelf system was installed in the main library, but open access to shelves was not permitted in the children's department until after Mr. Nyhuus' death in 1913. The incident shows that it was a slow and cautious revolution in the library field which Haakon Nyhuus led, but it may easily be concluded that because of this very caution he succeeded in enlisting not only the interested co-operation of the public but also the willingness of other libraries of the nation to follow suit. Conservative tendencies and satisfaction with old methods were most easily overcome in this way.

The results of Haakon Nyhuus' reorganization work in Oslo were soon evident. Circulation leaped upward from the modest figure of 24,693 volumes in 1897 to 174,393 in 1899, to 319,236 in 1900, and to over half-a-million volumes in 1906. Reading-room statistics showed a similar growth. The number of volumes used increased from 39,000 in 1896 to 120,000 in 1913, and the staff grew from two employees in 1897 to thirty in 1913.

The budget of the library amounted to 6,400 kroner in 1897 and to over 100,000 kroner in 1913.

The figures quoted demonstrate clearly how American methods have actually benefited the popular library of the largest city of Norway. But American influence was even more widespread. About 1900 the public library of the city of Trondheim was reorganized in line with American methods. The head librarian was Miss Martha Larsen (later Mrs. Martha Larsen Jahn), who had studied in the United States. A complete reorganization of the large public library of the city of Bergen (Bergens offentlige bibliotek) was undertaken by the writer during the years 1910-20. The Browne charging system had been introduced in that library in 1901, and open shelves and the Decimal Classification were adopted in 1909, but modern cataloging and a large number of other reforms were carried through during the following decade. A modern library building was erected in 1917, and American visitors to Bergen will be interested in discovering how extensively American principles and methods have been used in planning the building and in the daily operation of the library. The work of reorganization brought a growth of interest similar to that experienced in Oslo, and it may be worth noting that special efforts were made to use American devices of propaganda for the awakening and further growth of public interest in the institution and its activities.

Not only the cities but the rural districts as well benefited from the American library influence. In this field also it was Haakon Nyhuus who took the initiative. In order to make the government-supported public libraries more effective without increasing the expenses they were consolidated, in 1902, into one union under a bureau of the Department of Education. As the first leader of that bureau (1903-6), Mr. Nyhuus carried out the planned centralization of book selection, book-buying, cataloging, binding, etc.¹

That the library spirit of the United States spread so rapidly

¹ For a further review of this system see Arne Kildal, "Popular libraries of Norway," *Library journal*, LX (October 1, 1935), 754-57.

across Norway, and that American library methods came into such common use all over the country, may be attributed to the fact that so many of the leading Norwegian librarians of today derived their professional training at American universities and professional schools. The first few who ventured across the ocean to study librarianship were inspired by the career of Haakon Nyhuus. These students and those following them were urged on also by the prospects of a new field of operation in their homeland which needed cultivation.

Regardless of individual motives, the fact remains that a tentative list in the Norwegian library periodical² contains ninety-three names of Norwegian students who had studied in American library schools before July, 1929. The next year the list could be increased by nine. A statistical table in the *Bulletin of the American Library Association* in 1926 reveals that of the foreign students attending American library schools during the period 1887-1926, no less than 42 per cent came from Norway. During the last few years the current tends more to European library schools (especially London), largely for economic reasons.

In northern Europe Denmark was the next country to be influenced by American librarianship. It is probably correct to say that the influence traveled partly by way of Norway and partly through the medium of an enthusiastic and wide-awake library leader, Andreas Schack Steenberg, who in the early nineties headed the academic library in the small city of Horsens. He had become acquainted with the work of Dr. Reyer of Vienna, and thus his interest was awakened in the popular library system of the English-speaking countries. In his recollections Mr. Steenberg writes³ how excited he was when the mail brought him Dr. Reyer's book, *Entwicklung und Organisation der Volksbibliotheken*. On that day, March 7, 1893, he states, American and English public library activities became an active factor in Danish library work. Professor Steenberg first acquainted himself with English libraries, and in November, 1893, he started a correspondence with the renowned C. A.

² *For Folkeoplysning*, XV (1930), 47.

³ *Bogens verden*, III (1921), 47-48.

Cutter, who sent him a copy of his cataloging rules. This was an introduction to a lifelong and intimate connection with American librarians and library ideals.

As Tambs Lyche had done in Norway, Professor Steenberg wrote notes and articles in periodicals and newspapers to awaken an interest in the modern library movement. He began with an extensive contribution to the Danish magazine *Tilskueren*, in 1894, in which he reviewed the library work of the English-speaking world. In 1895 and 1897 he visited England, in the latter year as a delegate to the Second International Library Conference in London. There he met American librarians who had a stimulating effect on his plans for a reorganization of Danish library work. A few years later (1902) he visited the United States. During the latter nineties he was untiringly active in crusading for the new library theories, and in 1899 he succeeded in interesting the government authorities in the matter. In that year the Government Committee for the Support of Popular Libraries (Statens Komite til Understøttelse af Folkebogsamlinger) was formed, and thus the foundation was laid for a modern public library system in Denmark.

Although not expressly stated in his recollections, it is undoubtedly true that Professor Steenberg acquired many ideas and much stimulus from the library movement that had been in progress in Norway since the 1890's. He was in contact with Tambs Lyche in the early nineties and with Haakon Nyhuus somewhat later, and the methods and principles as developed in the Deichmanske Library served in many respects as a prototype during the later reorganization of the Danish library system. After the new century was well under way, however, Denmark built up its library system to a degree far in excess of that of her northern neighbor, and Denmark is often said to have the most advanced library organization of any European country at the present time. This is largely owing to the ample appropriations granted by the government and municipal boards and to a progressive library legislation, but credit must be given to the forward-looking policies of the leaders of the profession.

Professor Steenberg was a very impetuous person, and through his enthusiasm he did more to create a modern library movement in Denmark than any other individual. The gap in his professional training was filled by the assistance of his daughter, Mrs. Jeannette Cohn, who attended a one year's library course in Pittsburgh and later did some practice work in the public library of Cleveland. In the early years Mrs. Cohn acted as her father's secretary and technical guide through the wilderness of modern library methods.

Sweden was the last of the Scandinavian countries to be influenced by American librarianship. The influence first reached the country⁴ in 1901 when Professor Steenberg lectured in Stockholm on the activities of public libraries in the English-speaking world. The lecture contained information on the Decimal Classification, the dictionary card catalog, the card systems in the loan departments, and other technical inventions of American origin. The following year Professor Steenberg published a little book in Swedish on the modern library movement.

The interest was further stimulated when the young Swedish librarian, Miss Valfrid Palmgren, returned to her home country after a prolonged journey through the United States in 1907. Miss Palmgren (now Mrs. Palmgren Munch-Petersen) was overwhelmingly enthusiastic about what she had seen of American library work, and shortly issued (in 1909) several publications (the most important being *Bibliotek och folkupfostran*), in which she urged her countrymen to follow the American pattern in the library work of the future. In particular, Miss Palmgren was anxious to have her compatriots grasp the American idea of the library as a public or a popular institution meant to serve the entire community, and not merely a certain class or section.

Miss Palmgren had become especially interested in the modern way of conducting library work for children as she had seen it practiced in America, and she succeeded in having a children's library established in Stockholm in 1911 which was to

⁴ Knut Tynell, *Folkbiblioteken i Sverige* (Stockholm, 1931), p. 111.

be operated along strictly modern lines. Partly owing to her inspiring labor and partly to currents of influence from the neighboring countries of Norway and Denmark, the interest of the government authorities was secured, and in 1912 a proposition for a thorough reorganization of the entire Swedish library system was passed by the parliamentary body. This bill was based largely on a motion originally drawn by Miss Palmgren personally.

Thus Sweden acquired a highly modern library organization, based in the main on American ideas but adapted to national and local demands. During the following years the system has been built up, aided by ample governmental and municipal appropriations, until Sweden is now in the foremost rank of nations in library work.

In Finland also the American influence has made itself felt, according to statements made by the library counselor of the Finnish government, Miss Helle Cannelin.⁵ Speaking of conditions after the turn of the century, she states that libraries were planned for all citizens on the model of American public libraries, and that the internal organization gradually began to attract attention. Many systems which had their origin in the United States, such as open access, Decimal Classification, Newark and Browne charging systems, and the dictionary card catalog, began to spread. Later a reorganization of the government-supported public libraries won its way, and today Finland also may boast of a very modern and efficient popular library system.

The information given above probably shows clearly enough that the American influence on European librarianship has been considerable during recent decades in most of the leading nations of the Old World. It has forced its way through the mediums of publications, lectures and addresses, exchange of visitors from one library world to another, international conferences, prolonged practical service of foreign librarians in American libraries, and, last but not least, training of students from abroad in American library schools.

⁵ *Popular libraries of the world* (Chicago, 1933), p. 93.

From 1887 to 1926, one hundred and fifty-four foreign students studied at the library schools of the United States,⁶ and it is evident that on their return to their home countries they have greatly influenced the development of their native library movements. The *Bulletin of the American Library Association* for May, 1931, states that for the year 1930-31 twenty-two foreigners were enrolled as students in American library schools. Of this number nine came from Norway, six from China, and one each from Brazil, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Egypt, France, and Sweden.

After American library methods had become familiar in Europe it is a question of how widely these same methods were used and to what extent they were altered to conform with national demands. Space does not allow an extensive discussion of the question, and it must be sufficient to point to a few facts in connection with the matter. Open access to the shelves was discussed at the International Conference in London in 1877, and at that time nearly everybody spoke against it. At the Second International Conference in London twenty years later the same topic came under discussion, and on that occasion the American librarians were in favor of the reform and the Englishmen against it; the single exception was James D. Brown, who had already introduced open shelves in his library at Islington. Mention has been made of the comparatively late introduction of open shelves in the otherwise modern library of Oslo. Prejudice against this prevailed for a long time in the Scandinavian countries, both with the public and with the authorities, and as late as 1913 open access had to be defended vigorously in a discussion at a Scandinavian library meeting in Gothenburg, Sweden. In some European countries the reform has not been accepted as yet.

For many years a similar discussion has been waged about the Dewey Decimal Classification. In Great Britain and northern Europe the American system has been generally adopted, but in many other countries it has not gained headway. As is well known, Belgian librarians have worked hard to extend the

⁶ *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XX (October, 1926), 473.

system so that it might be better adapted to the needs of larger libraries, and they have published the results of their work through the International Bibliographical Institute in Brussels. In some countries, especially Denmark, the system has been changed to meet local demands, and in some libraries—e.g., Bergen in Norway—slight alterations have been made in order to provide a more prominent position for national history and literature. It may be said, however, that everybody who has attempted to "improve" Dewey has experienced tremendous difficulties in preserving the unity of the system as a whole.

It has been somewhat easier to make changes in the cataloging rules, and this has been done to a large extent in countries where the American rules have been used as a foundation. Other technical systems have been adopted more easily without the necessity of alterations to meet local demands.

Significant as the importation of the American technical methods has been to the library world of Europe, it is safe to maintain that more important still to the Old World has been the influence of what may be called the "library spirit" of America, that is to say, the idealism, the enthusiasm, and the unshakable belief in the far-reaching mission of libraries which run as an undercurrent to the work of daily routine. The American library spirit has created in many countries a new faith in the significance of the movement and has acted as an inspiration and a stimulus for the work of reorganization and reform which was necessary to make the library a really vital force in the education of old and young.

It is natural, therefore, that a voice of appreciation and gratitude should be heard from across the ocean in the very year when the American library world celebrates the semicentennial anniversary of professional training. The voice of thanks carries with it also all good wishes for the further development and progress of American librarianship.

THE AMERICAN LIBRARY SCHOOL TODAY¹

LOUIS R. WILSON

IN 1923 Dr. Charles C. Williamson, in a report prepared for the Carnegie Corporation of New York entitled *Training for library service*, presented a detailed description of the status of library schools in the United States in 1920-21 and made extensive recommendations for their modification and improvement.

Since Dr. Williamson published his report a number of significant events have occurred in the field of education for librarianship. First of all, the American Library Association appointed a Temporary Training Board, one of whose first activities was an extensive study of training for librarianship; this resulted in a recommendation that a permanent board be appointed to concern itself continuously with problems in library training. The Board of Education for Librarianship, thus created, formulated standards for the organization and guidance of library schools, set up and applied an accrediting procedure, and for eleven years has constantly co-operated with training agencies in formulating educational policies and in improving their administrative, financial, and educational status. Again, a number of schools which existed in 1920-21 have merged with teaching institutions or have been discontinued. Other schools have been established in sections of the country which previously had been without training facilities, and all library schools, in common with all other American educational institutions, have experienced a succession of changes incident to the periods of rapid expansion of the late twenties and the profound depression of the early thirties. Finally, the Carnegie Corporation of New York has recently

¹ The library schools included in this study are the twenty-six schools accredited by the American Library Association. For a list of these schools see the *Handbook of the American Library Association* for 1936, pp. H-52 and H-53.

issued a report² on conditions and trends in education for librarianship which raises at least four important questions. These, briefly stated, are:

1. Are the schools, influenced by the practices of schools of education, overemphasizing the professional aspects of their work?
2. Are they aware of the educational implications of library service as contrasted with administrative and technical performance?
3. Have they devised tests for the admission and guidance of their students and for the criticism and direction of their own activities which will insure a competent library personnel?
4. Has their location on university campuses been accompanied by an integration with the universities that is vital and significant?

In view of the considerations enumerated above, it may be appropriate to review in detail some of the changes which have taken place in education for librarianship since 1920-21, and to appraise the status of library schools on the threshold of the second fifty years of library training in America.

In this paper we shall consider certain aspects of library-school organization and administration in 1937 in the light of conditions existing in 1920-21 and subsequent changes. Major emphasis will be placed on the integration of library schools with universities and other educational institutions, their financial support, the administrative and educational status of their faculties, and their adequacy for efficient educational performance. The curriculum will not be included in this appraisal, as this subject has been dealt with extensively in the past year.³ The following analyses are based upon questionnaires, and they are subject to the limitations which the questionnaire method imposes. They are limited to the twenty-six schools accredited by the American Library Association and

² Ralph Munn, *Conditions and trends in education for librarianship* (New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1936).

³ Ernest J. Reece, *The curriculum in library schools* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1936).

do not take into consideration other training agencies such as non-accredited schools, training classes, and summer schools, although seventeen of the accredited schools maintained summer sessions in 1936.

I. LIBRARY SCHOOLS CONNECTED WITH TEACHING INSTITUTIONS

The Williamson report dealt quite extensively with the question of the connection of library schools with universities or teaching institutions, as contrasted with libraries or service institutions. Dr. Williamson was strongly of the conviction that education for librarianship, like education in other professional fields, should be provided in institutions devoted to teaching and research rather than in libraries. He felt that libraries by their very nature were more concerned with service than teaching, and that because of the practices which prevailed in individual libraries they would tend to limit the range and scope of instruction rather than provide a wide professional outlook. He recommended, accordingly, that library schools in the future be associated with universities, and that they undertake to introduce the professional point of view which one expects to find on university campuses.

Dr. Williamson's report covered fifteen schools, thirteen of which had membership in the Association of American Library Schools. Six of the thirteen were associated with a state or public library. Since 1920-21 the schools of the New York State Library and of the New York Public Library have combined to form the Columbia School of Library Service, the schools of the public libraries of St. Louis and Los Angeles have been discontinued, and the schools of the Carnegie libraries of Atlanta and Pittsburgh have become parts of Emory University and the Carnegie Institute of Technology, respectively.

Schools accredited by the Board of Education in 1936 numbered twenty-six. Of these Drexel represented a reorganization in connection with Drexel Institute. New schools at Albany, Nashville, and Emporia, Kansas, had been established at teachers colleges; one at Hampton at an Institute; two at St.

Paul and New Brunswick, New Jersey, in association with liberal-arts colleges; and eight at Ann Arbor, Baton Rouge, Chapel Hill, Chicago, Denver, Minneapolis, New York, and Norman, Oklahoma, at private or publicly supported universities. All of the accredited schools, consequently, are connected with teaching institutions, and in all but four instances are located in the library buildings of the institutions with which they are connected. In this respect, therefore, the Williamson recommendation has been carried out almost completely.

In the light of this development two questions present themselves: To what extent has the American library school been integrated with the institution of which it is a part? And how adequately is it equipped to provide the type of professional education demanded today of librarians and likely to be increasingly demanded in the future? The remainder of this paper is devoted to an attempt to answer these questions.

II. ADMINISTRATIVE INTEGRATION

One of the minimum standards for accreditation adopted by the Board of Education for Librarianship in 1926 was that the library school should be directed by an officer responsible for its organization and administration. The Board insisted that there should be an administrative officer upon whom the responsibility for direction of the school specifically rested, and that his relation to the administration of the supporting institution should be clearly defined. That requirement has been universally recognized, and in that sense at least the integration of the schools has been genuinely effective. The American library school or library department, through its official head, has its place in the general administration of the institution of which it is a part, and is thus in a position to present its claims for institutional support on the same basis as other schools and departments. Its director may hold other positions, such as that of librarian, but the school has its individual administrative entity and is represented through its director in the formulation of administrative procedures and educational policies which relate to it.

Other administrative relationships involving responsibility for the organization of curriculums, the direction of admissions, the conduct of special examinations, admission to candidacy for lower and higher degrees, the placement of graduates, *et al.*, have been adjusted to conform to the general practices of the parent institutions. Membership of library-school staff members in the general faculty or senate and on various faculty committees is the prevailing rule, and in these and all other administrative activities library schools enjoy the same rights and privileges as other units which make up the supporting institutions. In these respects the accredited schools have made the transition which Dr. Williamson recommended.

No request was included in the questionnaire for information concerning the physical quarters and equipment of the library schools. However, evidence from other sources shows quite conclusively that for most library schools adequate provision is made for both. As indicated above, all the schools except four are quartered in the library buildings of the institutions with which they are connected; they have extensive departmental libraries, classrooms, practice rooms, special book collections for practice purposes, rooms for typewriting, and offices for secretarial, administrative, and instructional staffs. Equipment is provided for either in the school budget or in the budget of the institutional library. In several instances fairly extensive collections of reports and research materials have been made available, and one institution has an extensive statistical laboratory for the use of advanced students engaged in research or special surveys. In these respects, also, the schools have almost without exception received the same consideration that has been accorded other administrative units of the institutions.

III. FINANCIAL STATUS

Only ten of the fifteen schools surveyed by Dr. Williamson were able to give information concerning the total amounts of their budgets for 1920-21, and only two were able to give more than a rough approximation of the total cost of operation.⁴ The

⁴ Charles C. Williamson, *Training for library service* (New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1923), p. 72.

largest total budget reported was \$21,500, of which \$14,885 was for salaries. The lowest was \$3,350, of which salaries accounted for \$2,730, although in this instance services provided by the library staff were not included in either the total budget or the item for salaries. Little progress in increasing budgets had been made in the preceding ten-year period and the sum total of the budgets of all fifteen schools was estimated as approximately \$150,000.

TABLE 1*

LIBRARY SCHOOL BUDGETS, 1910-11 TO 1920-21

SCHOOL NUMBER	1910-11		1915-16		1920-21	
	Total	Salaries	Total	Salaries	Total	Salaries
1.....	\$15,133†	\$9,322†	\$16,604	\$11,878	\$21,500	\$14,885
2.....	7,000‡	4,828‡	7,500‡	4,936‡	19,048	15,120
3.....	12,602§	7,830	11,506§	7,525	15,309§	11,930
4.....			11,181	10,066	11,540	10,590
5.....	8,050	4,950	8,970	5,520	9,360	6,260
6.....					7,190§	4,290
7.....	4,764	3,976†	5,145	4,300	6,650	5,850
8.....				2,390	5,553	5,895
9.....	4,500	2,939	4,500	2,950	4,500	3,455
10.....			2,050	1,410¶	3,350	2,730¶

* Williamson, *op. cit.*, table on library school budgets—totals for all purposes and amounts of salaries at various periods, p. 72.

† For 1911-12.

‡ Represent part of budget only; balance not segregated from library budget.

§ Approximate only—based on estimates.

|| For 1919-20.

¶ Not including service of library staff.

Accounting in institutions of higher education has received a great deal of attention during the past decade and, as a result, the difficulties of getting at budgetary information concerning operating expenses are not so great in many institutions today as they were fifteen years ago. Some of the difficulties of which Dr. Williamson complained, however, still exist in that library budgets and library school budgets in five schools are not separate; a clear differentiation is not made between the costs of administration and instruction in six others in which separate school and library budgets are maintained; an equally sharp

differentiation is lacking between the part of salaries of directors chargeable to the library as administration, on the one hand, and to instruction, on the other; one school is connected with an institution in which personal services are not placed upon a budgetary basis; and in three schools it is against trustee

TABLE 2
TOTAL BUDGETS AND PRINCIPAL EXPENDITURES
OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS, 1935-36

School Number	Total Budget	Administration	Instruction	Lectures	Books	Fellowships	Equipment	Travel	Other
1.....	\$ 14,734	\$ 2,190	\$ 7,910	\$ 407	\$ 839	\$ 60	\$ 141	\$ 697	\$2,500
2.....	4,350*				350	4,000			
3.....	9,638	1,250	7,388	100	†		700		
4.....	12,768	334	10,850		849		706	29	
5.....	9,260		8,710		550				
6.....	13,923	3,208	8,550		1,000	600	250	325	
7.....	3,750*				500		3,000	350	
8.....	20,000‡	2,240	12,960§	400	1,000	3,000		400	
9.....	21,265	7,670	12,105	270	500	150	370	200	
10.....	5,825*		5,400	325	†			100	
11.....	15,740	2,335	12,850		263†		450		105
12.....	51,002	6,225	33,500	500	1,000	3,000	1,305	625	4,847
13.....	25,000*				3,900				21,100
14.....	19,589	7,090	11,269		500		530	200	
15.....	18,545	8,335	9,635	275	†		300	100	
16.....	24,001	3,400	18,541	210	1,000		450	400	
17.....	15,914	6,114	7,950		550		300	1,000	
18.....	29,705	6,705	21,340		(600†) 450	300§	100	300	810
19.....	3,372*		3,212		160				
20.....	22,150	1,000	15,000	200	1,700	2,000	400	700	1,150
21.....									
22.....	24,250	5,350	17,750	250	900				
23.....	10,206	325	9,556		350			175	
24.....	11,349	1,080	9,550		89¶		630		
25.....	20,085	5,233	13,052	650	900		200	50	
26.....	21,309‡	5,144	14,221		355		1,066	523	
Total	\$427,740	\$75,128	\$271,299	\$3,587	\$17,432	\$12,810	\$10,898	\$6,074	\$30,512

* Complete data not supplied because of trustee regulations or because library school budget is not separate from library or general budget of supporting institution.

† Book allotment from university library funds (not included in total budget).

‡ Includes summer session.

§ Includes secretarial assistance.

|| Not in total budget.

¶ Additional book allotment from university library funds.

regulations for information concerning total budgets, salaries, and certain other items to be divulged.

In spite of these limitations, however, Tables 1 and 2 may be studied with profit. Table 1 is reproduced from the Williamson report for the sake of comparison; Table 2 lists the major items of expense in the budgets of the twenty-six schools for the academic year 1935-36, items for the summer session being

excluded except in two instances where failure to list this separately made separation impossible.

The range in the total budgets of the schools reporting is from \$51,002 to \$9,260, and if the five general graduate schools are omitted and the figures limited to the seventeen schools reporting which offer the first-year curriculum only, the average is \$16,999 and the range \$24,250 to \$9,260, with seven schools reporting \$20,000 or more. The figure would be still higher if data were included for those institutions which were able to supply only limited information.

The sum total of the items included in the budgets of the twenty-six schools listed is \$427,740. An estimate of the complete total for all items for the twenty-six schools may conservatively be placed at \$550,000, in contrast with the estimated total of \$150,000 for the fifteen institutions in 1920-21. Although the number of schools is greater by eleven than in 1920-21, this represents a gain of \$400,000 and can be thought of as basic in the program of library training for the decade ahead.

An analysis of the budgets by items is instructive. It shows that the major portions of the budgets are devoted to administration and instruction, the combined percentage for the two being eighty-one for the twenty-six schools.⁵ A more exact division between the two items is impossible in the analysis because the data are incomplete. The total expenditure for books, not including amounts spent by the supporting libraries, is \$17,432, and in a majority of the institutions the library spends additional funds for bibliographical and other materials which supplement the special book funds of the schools. In fact, schools which are parts of major universities have their entire bibliographical apparatus at hand, as well as other extensive and important materials built up over a long period of years. Schools which do not have separate budgets, however, are entirely dependent upon the library for such materials, and to that extent their status is less satisfactory than that of schools which have book funds under their own control.

⁵ Four schools did not give complete information concerning their budgets, and two others reported nothing for administrative purposes.

Appropriations for lectures occur in eleven budgets, for fellowships in eight, and for travel in seventeen. The item for equipment, like that for books, is specific in seventeen instances and is frequently supplemented by funds from the supporting library. The significance of the items for fellowships and travel will be considered later in connection with the discussion of assistance to students and faculty member attendance at professional meetings.

A serious aspect of the financial status of the schools, however, is revealed in Table 3 by the data relating to the permanence of their annual support. The period 1925-35 was one of

TABLE 3
SOURCES OF FUNDS AND PURPOSES OF EXPENDITURES
OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS, 1935-36

Source	For Support	For Special Projects
College and university*.....	\$252,856
Endowment.....	58,232
Foundations.....	116,652	\$22,300
Total.....	\$427,740	\$22,300

* This does not include funds covered by note † in Table 2 where university library funds supplied books for library school. The item of \$22,300 for special projects is also not included in the total.

rapid expansion in the library school field. It witnessed the founding, largely by means of special grants from educational foundations, of schools at Hampton, Peabody, McGill, Denver, Chicago, Louisiana State University, and the University of North Carolina, and the beginning of the ten-year program of assistance by the Carnegie Corporation of New York through annual grants to schools that had been previously established. This latter program, begun in 1925, called for the expenditure of \$50,000 annually to such schools. Much of the assistance provided by the Foundation was limited to a definite period of years. In 1936 several institutions, so established and supported in the beginning, assumed complete responsibility for the support of their library schools, and a number of others are at

the present time confronted with the difficult problem of readjustment through state or institutional funds. Schools which shared in the distribution of the \$50,000 for the period 1925-35 have also had to readjust their budgets in view of the modification of that program.

Of the total budgets reported in 1935-36 by the schools, \$311,088 was derived from institutional support, including tuition and fees. Of this amount, \$58,232 was derived from endowment, \$116,652 from educational foundations through special grants for support, and \$22,300 from the same sources through special grants for special purposes such as publication, surveys, seminars, institutes, and fellowships and scholarships. This summary indicates very definitely the debt that library training owes to educational foundations. Of the twenty schools included in Table 2 for which total budgets are given, thirteen received their principal support directly from funds of the institutions with which they were connected, while seven received the greatest part of their support from philanthropic sources. Of the seven, two were state institutions. All of the data in Table 2, however, present an interesting contrast to those cited by Dr. Williamson, and reveal a very definite advance in the financial provision for education for librarianship within the last fifteen years, although individual budgets are limited and several of them are at present less firmly based than is desirable.

The per capita costs of library training have always been high, especially when contrasted with costs in liberal arts or teacher-training institutions. Dr. Williamson reported tuition charges "very moderate" in 1920-21. Only one institution charged as much as \$200, one charged no tuition at all, and twelve charged tuition or fees ranging from \$45 to \$120. Charges for nonresidents were slightly higher in some instances, and various miscellaneous fees were required at certain schools.⁶ Today several schools charge more than \$200, the maximum being \$400. Costs are lowest for residents in state-supported schools. In a number of state-supported schools, however, non-

⁶ Williamson, *op. cit.*, p. 74.

resident differentials increase the tuition considerably and place it more nearly on a par with that of private institutions. Table 4 gives the general range in tuition without detail as to non-resident differentials and special fees for matriculation, diploma, *et al.*

TABLE 4
TUITION FEES IN LIBRARY SCHOOLS, 1935-36

Less than \$100	\$100-\$199	\$200-\$299	\$300-\$400
California Illinois Emporia, Kansas Louisiana State University New York State Teachers College Oklahoma Washington Wisconsin	Hampton McGill Michigan Minnesota North Carolina St. Catherine	Denver Drexel Emory New Jersey Peabody Pratt Simmons	Chicago Columbia Pittsburgh Syracuse Western Reserve

IV. SALARIES, 1920-21 TO 1935-36

The salaries which prevail in libraries and library schools have frequently been the object of adverse comment. They have been held responsible, and rightly, for much of the difficulty libraries and library schools have had in competing with other professions and business for personnel of the highest ability. Williamson observed in his report: "It is small wonder in the light of the figures as to salaries of principals and leading instructors . . . that the service on library school faculties does not make a strong appeal to successful librarians and educators." Table 5, reproduced from the Williamson report, shows that in 1920-21 the salaries of directors in thirteen institutions listed ranged from \$9,000 to \$2,550, but in the four instances in which the salary was more than \$4,400 it was derived in part from other sources than the library school. The salaries for principals or vice-directors ranged from \$3,300 to \$1,920, and the salary for the best-paid instructor derived entirely from teaching was only \$2,530.⁷ The average salary

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 73.

for the best-paid instructors in twelve schools who did not receive remuneration for other services was \$2,044, the lowest being \$1,500.

Table 6 presents information concerning the salaries of directors in 1935-36. Of the twenty-six schools three were not permitted to make public information concerning total budgets and individual salaries. The salaries of four directors who also

TABLE 5*
SALARIES OF DIRECTORS, PRINCIPALS, AND LEADING INSTRUCTORS
OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS IN 1921

School Number	Director	Principal or Vice-Director	Best-Paid Instructor
1.....	\$5,500†	\$3,200	\$2,000
2.....	‡	2,500	2,000
3.....	4,500†	2,700	2,400
4.....	8,000†	3,000	2,180
5.....	4,000	§	2,530
6.....	3,000	§	1,920
7.....	2,550	§	2,100
8.....	‡	2,500	2,100
9.....	§	3,300	2,300
10.....	4,400	§	3,500
11.....	§	1,920	1,800
12.....	9,000	2,280	1,500
13.....	‡	§	1,800

* Charles C. Williamson, *Training for library service* (New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1923), p. 73.

† Salaries thus marked are derived from more than one source—in some cases from both public and private funds.

‡ Information not available.

§ No position with this title.

|| Salary as librarian of the city public library.

serve as librarians are not given, as the parts of their salaries which might properly be charged to school administration are charged against the budgets of the libraries. In four schools charges are made against library budgets, and, in eleven schools, the entire charges of administration and teaching are budgeted against school funds. In four schools where the librarian serves as the director, the cost of administration only is charged against the school budget. And in one school personal service is not placed on a budgetary basis.

Comparison of the salaries for administration of library schools and teaching with those for administration, teaching, and direction of libraries brings out the interesting fact that, though the range in the former is wider, the median in the latter is \$1,070 greater. The salaries, however, of library school directors who devote their whole time to administration and teaching compare very favorably with salaries of chief librarians of college and university libraries listed in the *Bulletin of the American Library Association* for December, 1935.⁸ The high, median, and low salaries for the chief librarians were \$8,750, \$4,500, and \$1,920, respectively. Salaries for vice-directors or

TABLE 6
SALARIES OF DIRECTORS OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS, 1935-36

Salary Range	Administration and Teaching	Administration; Salary as Librarian Additional	Administration, Teaching, and Librarian's Salary	Administration Included in Librarian's Salary	No Data
No. of Schools	11	4	4	4	3
High.....	\$11,800	\$2,500	\$6,000	Salary data not given	No data given
Median.....	3,930	1,890	5,000		
Low.....	3,400	1,000	4,800		

NOTE.—Nine schools report vice-directors or principals. Their salaries are as follows: \$2,700, \$2,820, \$3,000, \$3,200, \$3,240, \$3,300, \$3,425, \$3,800, \$5,000. The median is \$3,240.

principals of nine schools range from \$5,000 to \$2,700, with a median of \$3,240. These ranges may be contrasted with those of associate or assistant librarians, which are \$5,037, \$2,508, and \$1,620, respectively. The salaries of associate and assistant professors may also be compared favorably with those of heads of departments. In all instances the comparison shows no differentiation which is adverse to the library schools.

Table 7 contains data concerning salaries for full-time instructors. The data are limited to the ranks of full, associate, and assistant professors and instructors. Data for the rank of associate in three schools have been included in the rank of

⁸ "College and university library general and salary statistics," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXIX (December, 1935), 867.

assistant professor. The table cannot be interpreted specifically because it contains both salaries actually paid and salary scales in effect in twenty-one schools which supplied data. That is, each figure represents either an actual salary or a limit on a salary scale reported for that particular rank. In spite of its

TABLE 7*

FIGURES REPORTED FOR ACTUAL SALARIES AND/OR SALARY SCALES, 1935-36

FULL PROFESSOR		ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR		ASSISTANT PROFESSOR		INSTRUCTOR	
Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum
\$2,389	\$ 3,150†	\$3,000	\$2,494†	\$1,450	\$1,400†	\$ 750	\$1,790†
3,600	3,200	3,500	2,700†	2,200	1,762	1,600	1,800†
3,900	3,250†	3,600	2,800†	2,300	2,160†	2,000	1,800†
4,000	3,300†	5,000	2,800†	2,300	2,190†	2,400	2,000†
5,000	3,400†	2,945†	2,322	2,250†	2,400	2,500
5,000	3,600†	3,000†	2,440	2,300†	2,750	2,700
5,500	3,800†	3,000†	2,500	2,400†	2,800
7,500	3,800†	3,200†	2,600	2,494	3,000
.....	3,990†	3,200†	2,630	2,700	3,000
.....	4,000	3,300	3,000	2,700†	3,000
.....	5,000	3,800	3,600	2,700
.....	5,200	5,000	2,750
.....	7,000	6,000	2,755†
.....	7,500	2,800
.....	10,000	2,800†
.....	12,000	3,425
.....	3,500†
.....	3,500
.....	4,000
.....	4,500
.....	4,500

* In interpreting the table it should be understood that the figures given in each column include all the schools reporting data in that classification.

† Where only one figure was reported it was arbitrarily placed in the maximum column.

NOTE: Five schools gave no data.

indefiniteness, however, among the significant facts revealed by the table are: (1) that library schools have established definite faculty ranks; (2) that corresponding salary scales have been set up; (3) that the salaries for directors, vice-directors, and full professors are comparable to those received by librarians and associate librarians in institutions of similar rank and financial status; and (4) that the salaries of associate and assistant

professors seem to be somewhat higher than those of department heads as indicated in the college and university library statistics referred to above, the range for the maximum salaries for the latter group being, respectively, \$4,500 high, \$2,195 median, and \$1,440 low.⁹

Table 8 carries the comparison of salaries received by instructors in library schools one step farther. It contrasts such salaries with those paid by the supporting institutions to which

TABLE 8

COMPARATIVE SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN LIBRARY SCHOOLS
AND THOSE OF OTHER SCHOOLS AND DEPARTMENTS
IN THE SAME INSTITUTION

School Number	Median Salary of All Instructors*	Median Salary of Library-School Instructors
1.	\$3,800	\$6,000
2.	2,300	2,800
3.	1,850	1,700
4.	3,600	No data
5.	3,200	2,983
6.	2,500	1,980
7.	2,050	2,517
8.	2,300	2,500
9.	1,800	3,375

* Data for median salaries for all instructors are from the files of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Median salaries for library schools are actual on the basis of data submitted. The tenth school having membership in the North Central Association gave no data in either instance.

the schools are attached. The actual median salary of all instructors in each library school is contrasted with that of all instructors in the supporting institution. Information concerning the latter salaries is taken from the files of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in which ten of the institutions to which the library schools are attached have membership.

The data require little comment. In five instances the median salaries of the library schools are higher than those for the institutions as a whole. In three they are lower. In one the data

⁹ *Ibid.*

are insufficient for a comparison. Remuneration for personal service is not indicated by salaries in another. In all instances, however, it should be pointed out that the number of staff members involved in the library schools is probably too small to compare effectively with the very much more extensive range for the institutions as a whole. It should also be noted that in some of the universities with very large enrolments a large number of instructors are utilized in teaching elementary subjects.

The most significant fact, brought out by all the tables dealing with salaries, however, is the contrast between the salaries of library school instructors in 1920-21 and 1935-36. Here there has been a distinct improvement, and this, when coupled with the opportunities of the long vacation teachers enjoy for study or for remunerative activity, should tend to attract increasingly well-trained personnel into the teaching field. The disparities between remuneration in the library field and remuneration in other professions has, of course, not disappeared. But the disparity between the salaries of teachers of library science and of librarians has seemingly been largely eliminated, and there is greater equality between the pay of such teachers and teachers in other college and university fields. This aspect of training for librarianship has undergone a pronounced change for the better and should result in a distinct improvement in professional training.

V. GENERAL INTEGRATION WITH SUPPORTING INSTITUTIONS

The preceding discussion of salaries shows clearly that in most schools the remuneration secured by members of library school staffs is at the generally prevailing standard of the institution as a whole. One may question, however, whether this seeming equality of treatment is as real as apparent, in view of the fact that in a number of library schools no full-time members of the staffs are listed in the full and associate professor ranks. Seven schools list no full-time full professors and three list neither full-time full professors nor associate professors.

The teaching staffs are also heavily concentrated in the rank of assistant professor. In these instances it is obvious that, although the school is on the general salary basis of the supporting institution, the instruction offered by it is not paid for at as high a rate as the general salary scale would seem to indicate. Thus, it would seem that the school received something less than full recognition within the institution, and modification of the condition might well be sought.

It might be observed further that, where librarians serve as directors and give part-time instruction, it is not made clear by some of the returns that such directors are listed in the professorial groupings. It is hardly conceivable that the head of a department or a dean who gives almost full time to administrative duties and only a minimum to teaching would be listed only in his administrative capacity and not as a member of the official teaching organization. Administrative appointments are usually subject to the pleasure of the general administration, and they frequently carry additional compensation, but both appointment and compensation can usually be terminated more easily than professional appointments and consequently have not the permanence of the latter.

Other compensations which faculty members of library schools enjoy in common with members of other faculties fall under several different categories. The long vacation is one. This period may be used in study, writing, travel, or other methods of recreation or education, or it may be spent in supplementing regular remuneration through teaching or other employment. With only two or three exceptions the library schools permit their faculties to engage in such additional employment, and sixty-eight members of the staffs reporting indicate that they add to their remuneration in this way.

Sabbatical leave is also closely associated with vacation privileges. In eleven schools such leave is open to library school faculties, and in those schools in which leave with compensation is not provided, leave for study without compensation is comparatively easy to secure. In institutions which operate on the

quarterly system, teaching schedules are sometimes so arranged that the vacation periods for two years may be combined into one long period for study or other purposes.

One of the matters to which the Board of Education for Librarianship devoted considerable attention early in its career was the teaching load carried by faculty members. In many instances it was excessive and unrelieved by proper assistance through secretaries and revisers. A mere recital of number of courses or hours taught furnishes an altogether misleading conception of the total time which an instructor may devote to his work; the hours spent in preparation for class or devoted to individual conferences and to supervising the writing of papers and subsequently reading them far exceed the actual time indicated by the formal records.

The number of courses taught in the twenty-six schools ranges from one to six, the number of class hours from one to eighteen. In the fall of 1936, 4 of the 140 instructors reporting taught no courses; 42 taught 1; 36 taught 2; 45 taught 3; 11 taught 4; and 2 taught 5 and 6 courses, respectively. The schedules followed in the library schools, however, conform in general to the pattern of the supporting institution. Secretarial assistance and the aid of revisers is generally provided, and the conditions under which faculties, especially full-time staff members, work are comparatively good.

Most of the schools include travel funds in their budgets, or their faculties have access to funds set aside by the supporting institution for the purpose. Only seven of the schools fail to have either. The privilege of using the fund, however, is sometimes limited to the dean, director, or principal of the school, but in twelve schools there are no such restrictions. Participation in programs is frequently recognized as justification for travel-fund use.

The question of tenure is not treated specifically in the returns. Twelve schools, however, report that appointments are based upon contracts; twenty-five schools report that the regulations governing the appointment of members of all faculties apply to them; and one school reports that the con-

tractual status of its staff is covered by state statutes. Clearly in these respects members of library school faculties have the same status as do other members of the supporting institutions.

Another category of privileges which library school faculties enjoy, but which college and university library staffs generally do not to an equal degree, is that of participating in provisions for retirement allowances and group or other types of employment insurance. Seventeen schools participate in retirement allowances and in insurance provisions, and in all instances are on the same basis as members of the general faculty.

VI. EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF INSTRUCTORS

In 1920-21 Dr. Williamson found the following situation with respect to the academic and professional equipment of the instructors then employed in teaching in library schools. Of the one hundred instructors, only 52 were college graduates; 81 were library school graduates; 42 were teaching in the same library school from which they were graduated; 20 had had previous teaching experience; and 7 had had training in educational methods. The professional experience in library work of 68 was considered good and of 32 apparently inadequate. Writing of this situation, Dr. Williamson said:

It should not be inferred that a college degree is considered an absolutely indispensable part of the equipment of the library school instructor. Certainly some of the most successful teachers on the staffs of the library schools are without a college degree. The Bachelor's degree, however, is in general a fair measure of an individual's intellectual equipment and has come to be regarded as the minimum essential for all kinds of teaching above the elementary school. In no part of this country would instruction in a well organized high school be considered acceptable if half of the teachers were not college graduates.

Library school instruction, moreover, should rank not with high school but with college instruction. In respect to college faculties, the best opinion is even more insistent on full college education and the better institutions an advanced degree is usually a *sine qua non* for instructors. It does not seem probable that a few small library schools will get better results from a teaching staff of which 48 per cent are without the Bachelor's degree than would a college. No self-respecting college would attempt it. Some of the protago-

nists of things as they are attempt to justify the existing condition by belittling the value of a college education and arguing that some instructors are better without it than others ever will be with it.¹⁰

During the first semester of the academic year 1936-37, 102 full-time instructors and 67 part-time instructors were employed in the 26 accredited schools. Individual question blanks were submitted to the entire group and 150 of the 169 supplied information concerning their educational attainments.

Table 9 shows the distribution of the 169 by rank and by amount of time devoted to teaching. It is worth noting that of the 26 full-time full professors, over half are directors, that one

TABLE 9
NUMBER OF LIBRARY SCHOOL INSTRUCTORS BY RANK
AND AMOUNT OF SERVICE RENDERED

Rank	Number of Full-Time	Number of Part-Time	Total
Full professor.....	26	11	37
Associate professor.....	20	4	24
Assistant professor.....	38	11	49
Instructor.....	15	18	33
Associates or lecturers.....	3	23	26
Total.....	102	67	169

school has 5 of the 26, and that seven schools have no full-time full professors at all. Three schools have neither a full-time full professor nor a full-time associate professor. The heaviest concentration is in the assistant professor rank, the total being 38 full-time and 11 part-time. Finally, it may be noted that 20 of the 23 part-time associates or lecturers are in three schools.

The data represented in Tables 10 and 11 are limited to 140 of the 150 instructors who returned questionnaires concerning their educational background, professional experience, membership in faculty committees, membership in professional organizations, and contributions to professional literature. They include all who made returns in the ranks of full professor, associate professor, assistant professor, and instructor. The rank of

¹⁰ Williamson, *op. cit.*, pp. 34-35.

assistant professor also includes those designated in three institutions as associates. The returns include both full-time and part-time instructors.

Table 10 shows the academic training of the 140 who made returns. Of the 140, 33 are full professors. Of these, 32 have Bachelor's degrees in academic subjects and 1 has a professional degree or certificate from a library school. In addition to this basic academic attainment, 8 have Master's degrees and 7 have Ph.D. degrees. Five of the group also have honorary degrees. Of the 22 associate professors, 19 have Bachelor's degrees in academic subjects, 9 have academic Master's degrees,

TABLE 10
ACADEMIC EDUCATION BY PROFESSIONAL RANK OF
LIBRARY SCHOOL FACULTY MEMBERS

Rank	Ph.D.	Master	Bachelor	Library School Degree or Certificate Only	No Degree, Academic or Professional	Total
Professor	7	8	17	1	33
Associate professor	10	9	3	22
Assistant professor	2	13	35	1	2	53
Instructor	2	7	19	4	32
Total	11	38	80	5	6	140

and 3 have professional degrees or certificates from library schools. The data for assistant professors, instructors, and for the group as a whole may be read in the same way.

Table 11 shows the professional training of the group. Of the 33 full professors, 25 have basic Bachelor's degrees or certificates from library schools, 6 have professional Master's degrees, and 2 have professional Ph.D. degrees. Of the 8 without professional degrees, all have Bachelor's degrees, 3 have academic Master's degrees, and 4 have academic Ph.D. degrees.

If the totals are combined for the two types of training, it will be seen that 129, or 92 per cent, of the 140 have basic Bachelor's degrees; 115, or 82 per cent, have basic professional degrees; 64, or 46 per cent, have Master's degrees either of an academic or of

a professional nature; and 14, or 10 per cent, have academic or professional Ph.D. degrees. A fact which the table does not reveal is that 6, or 4 per cent, of the group hold both an academic and a professional Master's degree. Six of the 140, or 4 per cent, have no degree or certificate whatever.

These tables do not take into consideration the fact that 20 faculty members have the B.L.S. degree which represented two years of study in a library school. On the other hand, it also overlooks the fact that a number of Bachelor's degrees were awarded for three years of academic work and one year of

TABLE 11
PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION BY PROFESSIONAL RANK OF
LIBRARY SCHOOL FACULTY MEMBERS

RANK	Ph.D.	MASTER	BACHELOR	NO PROFESSIONAL DEGREE				Total
				Academic Ph.D.	Academic Master	Academic Bachelor	None at All	
Professor.....	2	6	17	4	3	1	33
Associate professor.....	3	3	16	2	1	22
Assistant professor.....	1	12	33	1	4	2	53
Instructor.....	7	18	1	2	4	32
Total.....	3	28	84	5	6	8	6	140

library science. These variations seemed to cancel each other sufficiently to justify the more simple presentation. These tables make no allowance for the amount of time necessary to secure advanced degrees in library science as contrasted with the amount of time necessary to secure advanced degrees in other subjects.

Table 12 presents data concerning the professional experience of the 140 instructors reporting and the number of years they have taught in their present positions. Of the 140, 11 did not report how much experience they had in library work; 36 had been engaged in professional work 5 years or less; 29 from 6 to 10 years; 41, 11-20 years; and 23, 21 or more years. Seemingly,

the professional experience of the group has been extensive and in a number of instances quite varied.

Table 13 relates to the number of years faculty members have taught in their present positions. Of the 140, 50 have been so engaged 5 years or less; 53, 6-10 years; 20, 11-20 years; and 11,

TABLE 12

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE OF 140 LIBRARY SCHOOL FACULTY MEMBERS

NUMBER OF YEARS	RANK OF THOSE REPORTING				
	Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Total
No report.....	4	1	3	3	11
5 and less.....	3	4	16	13	36
6-10.....	8	2	10	9	29
11-20.....	9	12	16	4	41
21 or more.....	9	3	8	3	23
Total.....	33	22	53	32	140

TABLE 13

TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF 140 LIBRARY SCHOOL FACULTY MEMBERS IN THEIR PRESENT POSITIONS

NUMBER OF YEARS	RANK OF THOSE REPORTING				
	Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Total
No report.....	1	4	1	6
5 and less.....	7	2	21	20	50
6-10.....	14	11	19	9	53
11-20.....	5	5	8	2	20
21 or more.....	6	4	1	11
Total.....	33	22	53	32	140

21 or over. Data were not secured with respect to the amount of instruction the group has had in methods of teaching, nor was sufficiently specific information secured to determine whether inbreeding, of which Dr. Williamson complained, is practiced to the extent it was formerly in recruiting staff members. That there has been decided improvement, however, is abundantly

evident, in that many of the holders of advanced degrees are now teaching in institutions which offer only the first-year curriculum. Their graduate work, at least, was taken in another institution.

Table 14 is offered for the sake of a possible comparison that cannot be made on the basis of the returns. Individual schools, however, and the whole library profession may well study it intently. It deals with the academic and professional equipment

TABLE 14
PERCENTAGE OF ADVANCED DEGREES HELD BY ALL
INSTRUCTORS IN INSTITUTIONS TO WHICH
LIBRARY SCHOOLS ARE ATTACHED*

Number of School	Percentage of Ph.D.'s	Percentage of M.A.'s
1.....	73.51	58.02
2.....	64.26	65.38
3.....	19.39	92.40
4.....	64.17	67.16
5.....	40.56	49.85
6.....	43.02	81.37
7.....	36.43	56.73
8.....	46.43	56.14
9.....	18.83	38.40
10.....	28.89	65.63

* Data from the files of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Ten of the twenty-six library schools are included. The percentages in the columns for the M.A.'s are based upon the number of instructors remaining after the holders of Ph.D.'s have been subtracted.

of faculty members of colleges, teachers colleges, and universities in the North Central Association in so far as this is revealed by academic and professional degrees. The range in percentage of Ph.D. degrees held by the entire faculties of the institutions in the North Central Association is from 73.51 to 18.83, as against 10 per cent held by the faculties of all twenty-six library schools, and of Master's degrees from 92.40 to 38.40 per cent, as against 50.07 per cent for all library schools. The median percentage of Master's degrees held in the ten institutions, when all instructors are included, is 61.70.

Other evidences of faculty adequacy are furnished by data

concerning memberships in learned societies, participation in the programs of library and other professional associations, and the number of books, professional articles, and book reviews published. Returns from faculty members indicate a wide range of membership, not only within library associations, but in other learned societies as well. The average number of memberships for all of the 140 faculty members reporting, with membership in state and local library clubs and the American Association of Library Schools excluded, is as follows: professors, 3.48; associate professors, 2.36; assistant professors, 1.58; and instructors 1.62.

In the field of publication, 501 titles were reported for a five-year period. Of this total, 330 were periodical articles, 92 were book reviews, 24 were other forms of writing, and 55 were books. Thirty of the thirty-three full professors accounted for 256 of the 501 titles, including 21 books, 172 periodical articles, 56 book reviews, and 7 other documents.

VII. STUDENT STATUS

Williamson reported a total of 371 students in 15 schools in 1920-21. In 1936-37 there were 1,184 students enrolled, of whom 1,065 were pursuing the first-year curriculum and 119 advanced work. Tables 15 and 16 show their distribution and the types of schools attended. Data are not available to show the exact number of students taking the first-year curriculum who had earned the Bachelor's degree before admission. On the face of the returns, approximately 65 per cent of the first-year students fall into this classification. The probabilities are, however, that many of the students in Type III schools hold the Bachelor's degree even though the classification of the school does not show it. Exact information concerning this point is available for 1935-36 in the files of the board of Education for Librarianship. In that year, of 1,220 students, 943, or 77.3 per cent, had Bachelor's degrees; 168, or 13.7 per cent, had three years of college credit; 72, or 5.9 per cent, had two years; 25, or 2.04 per cent, had one year; and 12, or 1 per cent,

had only secondary-school education. Seventy-nine, or 6.4 per cent of the 943 who had Bachelor's degrees, held Master's degrees as well, and 56, or 4.6 per cent, held the B.S. in L.S.

TABLE 15
DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL, 1936-37

Type of School	Number of Schools	First-Year Curriculum	Advanced Curriculum	Total
I.....	5	309	118	427
II.....	12*	384*	384
III.....	9	373	1	373
Total.....	26	1,065	119	1,184

* Contains ninety-six students in schools which are also classed as Type III.

NOTE: Types I and II require a Bachelor's degree for admission. Type III includes the first-year curriculum of library science in the fourth year of the college course. Two schools are listed as being in Types II and III.

TABLE 16
NUMBER OF LIBRARY SCHOOL STUDENTS, 1936-37

Classification	First-Year Curriculum	Advanced Curriculum	Total
Men			
Full-time.....	71	20	91
Part-time.....	41	28	69
Total.....	112	48	160
Women			
Full-time.....	681	25	706
Part-time.....	272	46	318
Total.....	953	71	1,024
Grand total.....	1,065	119	1,184

Table 16 shows the distribution of students by sex. Of the first-year students, 953 are women and 112 men. Of the advanced students, 71 are women and 48 men. Of the total 1,184, 1,024, or 86 per cent, are women and 160, or 14 per cent, are men. It also shows the distribution of full-time and part-time students in both the first-year curriculum and advanced study.

Sixteen of the twenty-six schools report that a number of students are currently employed in the library of the supporting institution or other libraries. In three schools the number is considerable, and the total in all schools is 285. Of these, 212 are first-year students and 73 advanced students. These 73 advanced students constitute 61 per cent of the total 119 enrolled. This figure brings out sharply the fact that advanced study in library science is largely financed out of funds earned concurrently by students and that, if more librarians are to engage in extensive advanced study, additional provision should be made for scholarships, fellowships, and other forms of student assistance.

Two questions which have frequently been raised with respect to library school students are, first, whether care is taken to select only those who give promise of professional excellence, and, second, whether training is provided solely by the library school faculties of the supporting institutions.

In answer to the first question, it may be said that schools are definitely attempting to select only such students as show evidence of real ability. Increasing emphasis is being placed upon knowledge of foreign languages and of subjects in the fields of the biological, natural, and social sciences, as well as in the humanities. Evidence submitted by applicants for scholarships, fellowships, and part-time positions is scrutinized very carefully. In general, it may be said that persons ranking in the lower half of their academic class have difficulty in gaining admittance and that in the case of graduate students special effort is made to admit only those who offer evidence of ability to carry on effective work at that level.

In many schools these general requirements are supplemented with examinations of various kinds to test intelligence, special aptitudes, and other qualities. Fourteen schools offer such tests. Five schools excuse students from taking certain courses provided they demonstrate by tests that they are sufficiently familiar with the subject matter. Examples of tests given are the Thorndike intelligence, the Inglis vocabulary, the Nelson-Denny reading, Whipple college reading, and Allport social

values. There are also various pretests in book selection, reference, and administration. Very often students transferring from other institutions are required to pass tests in certain subjects to demonstrate their competence.

The wide use of tests of the types mentioned suggests the conviction on the part of many schools of their value. The specific applications made of the results (either in student guidance, placement, or curricular adjustment) deserve to be made available to the profession at large and especially to the general faculties of library schools, for emulation and wider use.

The answer to the second question is not so clear. Comparatively few schools make provision for their first-year students to take courses in other departments unless they have been excused, on the basis of demonstrated competence through tests, from certain courses in the first-year curriculum. Opportunity is also afforded to make up deficiencies in foreign languages. Courses offered by library schools in the first-year curriculum are open to students in other departments in about half of the schools, but the opportunity is generally not accepted. Exceptions are students in education who take certain library science courses as a minor.

At the graduate level there is much more freedom. Two-fifths or more of the work required for the Master's degree may be taken in other departments. In one of the advanced schools the schedule of studies is very flexible, being worked out to meet the requirements of individual students, and in other schools, where the Ph.D. is awarded by the graduate department of the university rather than by the library school, both library school and graduate department determine the nature of the student's program. Graduate courses in the library school are open, with the consent of the instructor, to graduate students in other fields when there is evidence that such study may be carried on with profit. Integration of study at the graduate level has made genuine progress and may be considered as contributing to breadth of view, knowledge of method, and experience in carrying on sustained research, all of which are fundamental to the sound growth of American librarianship.

Aid to students through loan funds, scholarships, fellowships,

and grants-in-aid are quite general, and are provided either through the library school direct or through the supporting institution. Twenty schools report access to general institutional loan funds. Fourteen report the possession of loan funds by the school. Scholarship and fellowship funds are also available through alumni associations and library organizations. The amount included in the budgets in Table 2 for fellowships totaled \$12,810, and to this may be added the various amounts for scholarships provided by the schools but not detailed here, the grants for fellowships which have been made annually by the Carnegie Corporation through the American Library Association, and the assistance to librarians for study which has been provided by the Rockefeller Foundation, the General Education Board, and the Julius Rosenwald Fund. The sum total would be impressive, yet if it were compared with the totals offered for like purposes to longer established departments and schools, it would doubtless be comparatively small. In this fact, and the additional fact that graduate study is practically dependent upon assistance of some form, lies a distinct challenge to library school directors.

VIII. ADVANCED STUDY AND RESEARCH

In 1920-21 two of the fifteen schools then in existence offered two-year curriculums leading to the degree of B.L.S. Admission was based upon the possession of a Bachelor's degree. At that time one school had awarded a single M.L.S. and another had awarded seven. In the fifteen years since 1920-21 graduate work leading to advanced degrees has undergone considerable modification and extension. Seven schools now offer courses leading to the M.A. (though two of these grant the M.A. in restricted fields only) and two award the Ph.D. In one school the program of studies for the latter degree is supervised directly by the school itself, although some of the subjects included are studied in other departments. In the other instance the program is directed by the Joint Committee on Graduate Studies with the concurrence of the library school faculty.

Extended opportunity for advanced study has been accompanied by three other important developments. The first of

these is the closer integration of study in the library school with study in other university departments. It is noteworthy that in all of the schools providing advanced curriculums a considerable part of the work leading to the M.A. is taken in departments other than the library school, and, in the case of work for the Ph.D., integration with other departments has been extended even farther. In this way library school students have not only increased their knowledge of special subject fields but at the same time have become better aware of the potential contribution such fields might make to librarianship directly. They learn also how procedures and principles in other disciplines may be applied with profit to the solution of library problems. In thus extending their work the schools are drawing upon other departments for broadening and deepening the student's understanding of librarianship. The directing faculties are attempting to place at the command of future librarians new points of view and a body of supporting knowledge sufficient to enable them not merely to keep a pace ahead of traditional library service but to discover new patterns of service through which librarianship may be made more vital and significant.

The second development has been concerned with research in librarianship. This development has rested upon the conviction that experimentation and investigation are essential to the cultivation of understanding in the library field, just as they have been essential to progress in other fields. The listing of theses prepared by graduate students, the addition to several staffs of instructors competent to direct investigation in certain branches of librarianship, the utilization of instructors in other disciplines which have implications for librarianship, the development of research techniques which may be applied to the study of library situations, the development of collections of materials bearing upon specific library problems, and the support through grants-in-aid to a number of research assistants are comparatively new features of library school activity and may be set down as one of the distinct gains of the past decade and a half. Their importance, however, is probably exceeded by the schools' discovery of the reader as a subject for investigation as distinguished from the purely bibliographical and technical

aspects of librarianship. The consideration of his reading interests and habits, both as an individual and as a member of social groups, and of the service which the library as a social institution should render him has given to advanced study a new point of departure and a vitality of marked significance.

The third development has taken place in publication. One school reported publication funds under its own control and others indicated the opportunity of publishing through the supporting institutions on the same terms as other faculties. Three schools have established regular series of library studies and one maintains a quarterly review through which the results of research and critical reviews of library literature are available to the library profession generally. These studies mark the beginning of sustained, full-length critical examination of library situations which are not only proving of great value to librarians but which also are the means through which students in other fields are securing a better understanding of the library as an institution, and as a consequence they are giving it increasing consideration in their writings.¹¹

IX. CONCLUSION

To this point we have presented essentially factual data derived from questionnaires submitted to the accredited library schools. Certain observations based on the data may now be offered.

The first of these relates to the reports of Dr. Williamson and the Temporary Training Board of the American Library Association and the work of the Board of Education for Librarianship during the past eleven years. It scarcely need be said that the influence of the Williamson report is shown throughout this paper. The service he rendered education for librarianship consisted of a clear analysis of conditions in 1920-21 and the recommendation of measures directed at improvement. As already noted, he urged that, if possible, library schools be connected with universities; that their staffs contain a high

¹¹ Lloyd V. Ballard, *Social institutions* ("The century social science series," New York, London: D. Appleton-Century, 1936), chap. xii, "The public library"; also William B. Munro, *Municipal administration* (New York: Macmillan, 1934), chap. xxxiii, "Public libraries."

percentage of full-time instructors chosen for distinction in training and ability; that the first year of study be general and basic; that specialization be reserved for the second and third years; and that a national examining board be created to pass upon the credentials of library school graduates and to formulate requirements concerning library training in general. The Temporary Training Board, acting officially for the American Library Association, made an extensive examination of the same general subject, formulated a broad program of action, and brought about the establishment of the Board of Education for Librarianship, through which the policies of the Association concerning training might continuously be formulated and expressed.

The part which the Board has played cannot be briefly summarized. But, as this study has unfolded, the influence of the Board in certain aspects of library training has been clearly revealed. Among other things, it has emphasized, through the standards adopted in 1926, the following elements in training for librarianship: (1) schools and departments engaged in training should be parts of degree-conferring institutions; (2) the director and staff should be on a basis comparable to that of other officers and faculty members of the institution with which the school is connected; (3) a well-balanced program of studies should be formulated; (4) a well-conceived teaching schedule limited to a reasonable teaching load should be followed; (5) a separate budget adequate for personnel and equipment should be provided; and (6) students should be selected on the basis of personality and academic attainment. It encouraged the establishment of certain schools where need and prospect of support seemed to justify such action and discouraged the establishment of others. It secured the establishment of a number of fellowships administered by the American Library Association, and throughout its entire existence it has worked steadily for the improvement of library schools. Since the modification of its standards in 1933, it has been concerned with the study of special problems, it has urged experimentation and specialization, and from its establishment it has attempted to make clear to college and university administrators, to educational and

professional associations, and to educational foundations the place of education for librarianship in the field of general and professional education in America.

A second observation relates to certain weaknesses which the data presented have revealed. Several are of an administrative nature. Obviously, not all of the library schools have succeeded in establishing budgets separate from the institutional library budgets. Where such separation has not been secured, it should be sought, even at the risk of more extended bookkeeping, because it leads to clarity of understanding of the fundamental functions of the library, on the one hand, and of the library school, on the other.

Closely associated with this unsatisfactory adjustment is that of the teaching load carried by instructors in several schools. Five and six courses are carried by instructors in two instances. This obviously is not in the interest of good teaching, and remedial action by the schools concerned should be sought.

The educational qualifications of library school students call for a third observation. The fact that 22.7 per cent of the students admitted by library schools in 1935-36 had had only three years of academic training or less should be a matter of serious concern for all librarians who believe the broadest possible general education and extended professional education are essential to effective librarianship. A profession which numbers more than thirty thousand members, of whom thirteen thousand are united in a great national organization, may well question whether it is giving adequate consideration to its future usefulness when one-fourth of those who are being professionally trained have had less general education than that represented by the usual Bachelor's degree. For the public library, which fills many of its most important positions through promotions from its own staff and which so far has made but slight provision through leaves of absence or financial assistance for in-service training of its staff members, this consideration is particularly important. The pertinence of this question is heightened when it is realized that approximately only 10 per cent of the students enrolled in library schools are pursuing advanced courses either in library subjects or in other subjects,

that only two-fifths of these are studying full time, that the percentage of the total municipal revenue for public service received by the public library has remained almost stationary for thirty years, and that the demands made upon the library by formal and adult education may become, as they have in the past decade, increasingly complex. The problems in the library field, like those in other fields, can be successfully solved only by a personnel whose educational qualifications are not too narrowly limited.

It should also be evident, in spite of the advance made in the professional qualifications of library school faculties during the past fifteen years, that further advance is necessary. A study of the qualifications of all instructors in institutions having library schools clearly shows library school faculties at a disadvantage in this respect. A thoroughly trained teaching staff is indispensable if the prospective librarian is to acquire the general educational background, the degree of sound scholarship, and the soundly based professional training which will enable him to formulate library policies intelligently and relate them effectively to the needs of society.

This paper has not dealt specifically with the curriculums of library schools. There is evidence in the full-length study of the subject by Reece¹² in the paper by Howe¹³ read before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago in 1936, and in various articles which have appeared in library literature in the last few years that these are not static. Two of the largest schools have recently inaugurated courses which acquaint the first-year students with library trends, new methods of presenting subject matter have been adopted in others, and a realistic attempt is being made by several faculties to differentiate the implications of library service in its best sense from the bibliographical and technical procedures by which library training has formerly been too greatly characterized.

Additional problems often raised concern the failure of library-school faculties to keep in touch with professional prac-

¹² Reece, *op. cit.*

¹³ Harriet E. Howe, "The first-year library-school curriculum," *Library trends* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937).

tice, and the danger of multiplying courses in library matters at the expense of courses in the sciences or humanities. No attempt has been made in this paper to grapple with these questions. The observation may be offered, however, that satisfaction with the *status quo* should be tempered by a careful consideration of developments in other fields, so that beneficial practices may be taken over and adapted to the present framework of librarianship. This does not imply slavish imitation of other subject fields, but is simply a recognition that the concept of librarianship may be enriched by an understanding of what they have to contribute.

A final observation may be made about the support of education for librarianship in general and of graduate study in librarianship in particular. This constitutes a problem which deserves serious attention. The sum total of all the budgets of the twenty-six schools for 1936-37 is estimated at \$550,000 for the training of approximately twelve hundred students annually. In 1935-36, \$116,652 of this amount was in the form of grants for support from educational foundations. Several institutions went upon a self-supporting basis in that year and others are attempting to make the transition this year. The stabilization of schools which have demonstrated unquestioned usefulness is of the utmost importance and should be effected along lines that will lead to the greatest possible professional advancement.

As has been indicated, a beginning in graduate study, investigation, and publication has been made, but support for those aspects of advanced study which deal with the library's governmental and financial relations, the function which it should perform as an educational force, and which make clear its significance as a social institution, as contrasted with assistance for study and publication in the bibliographical field, is largely wanting. And seemingly it is in this direction that the service of libraries to society may receive its greatest stimulation. Strengthening at this point is essential if during the next ten or fifty years the advance recorded within the last fifteen is to be continued, and the foundation thus laid is to be appropriately built upon.

WHY GRADUATE STUDY IN LIBRARIANSHIP?

LEON CARNOVSKY

AS ONE attempts to gauge the temper of the library profession with respect to graduate study, one must conclude that the case for advanced training remains to be established. Perhaps it is not too much to say that attitudes, when they are not indifferent, range from violent hostility to mild tolerance, and only on the part of those engaged in advanced work, in either a directive or an active sense, can anything like downright enthusiasm be detected.

The reasons for these variations in attitude are worth noting. In the first place, the phrase "graduate study" as applied to librarianship is itself a very vague one. To many it means simply an extension of the first-year library-school curriculum—learning something more about the principles and techniques which are taught in any well-organized library school. In his comprehensive 1923 report¹ Williamson pointed out the distinction between additional general training and specialized training along certain lines, and he cited about ten fields in which such specialized work might well be undertaken and encouraged. To some extent specialization has been introduced, especially in the schools offering a second year of training; whether this has been overemphasized or underemphasized, or perhaps unequally balanced, depends upon numerous factors, two of the more important being relative demand on the part of the library profession for persons possessing advanced training, and the amount of course content that might be incorporated into such training. Many persons with this conception of advanced study believe that the abilities achieved through it may better be acquired on the job—that a whole year devoted to their theoretical mastery is wasteful and small compensation

¹ C. C. Williamson, *Training for library service* (New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1923).

for the opportunity of coming to grips realistically with library problems as they present themselves in daily practice.

It must be admitted, furthermore, that the productiveness of advanced or graduate study has not been of a sort to inspire confidence in the skeptic. Many of the theses produced to fulfil the requirements for higher degrees are routine affairs, heavily imbued with the pedantry and woodenness of the typical Master's or Doctor's dissertation. The studies listed in the compilations by Waples² bear eloquent testimony to this. They are in large part routine exercises, far removed from the sphere of practical activity, heavily weighted on the bibliographical and historical side. Not entirely, however. Many consist of surveys or analyses of contemporary practices, either of a technical or of an administrative sort, and are likely to prove more helpful to the student responsible for the production of the thesis than to the library profession. In any event, it is not likely that many theses have received wide circulation, even if a potential wider interest existed, because of their usual inaccessibility. The fact remains that many theses are probably not worth reading, and many others are locked away beyond the reach of all but a few.³

Whatever blame attaches to this situation cannot be laid entirely at the door of the library schools. Many practitioners who have been most articulate in their demand for advanced work have been strangely nebulous in their suggestions concerning the direction such work should take, and especially with respect to specific research investigations in which they retained more than an academic interest. They have too often been content to exhibit enthusiasm for the trappings and symbols of graduate study, leaving the content to the imagination and discretion of the library schools. This attitude makes for an

² Douglas Waples, "Graduate theses accepted by library schools in the United States from June, 1928, to June, 1932," *Library quarterly*, III (July, 1933), 267-91; "Graduate theses accepted by library schools in the United States during the academic year 1932-33," *ibid.*, IV (October, 1934), 639-41; "Graduate theses accepted by library schools in the United States from July, 1933, to June, 1935," *ibid.*, VI (January, 1936), 74-83.

³ Anyone interested in pursuing the analysis of theses will find a stimulating treatment in the first of the Waples articles cited.

unfortunate cleavage between objective investigation and practical applications, and the workers in the field should not be too quick to condemn if the results seem sterile.

On the other hand, if it is wrong for librarians to remain totally aloof from research activities, it would be even worse for them to attempt to dictate the nature of the research or its methodology. This leads us to another reason for the suspicious eye so frequently cast upon graduate study. Some investigations, thoroughly circumspect and clean-cut in their use of evidence, are so far removed from the line of practical activity as apparently to lose all connection with it except in the minds of the investigators. It is as though an engineer were to condemn studies in the cosmic ray because he is unable to visualize the applications of such studies in his own profession. Whether library studies *should* be closer to actual practice is a moot question; the fact is that, as long as the distance separating the two is so great, it will be difficult for the field to comprehend and sympathize with the laboratory.

Attention has already been called to the vagueness of the phrase "graduate study"; another which is hardly less ill defined is "librarianship," and because it is used so loosely it has contributed to the confusion in attitudes toward graduate study. The librarianship which represents curatorship of a special collection of Americana is a far different thing from that representing the circulation of children's books to the general public, and it is, in a sense, unfortunate that so elastic a term should be applied to both functions. Obviously, questions of advanced training cannot be answered in the same way for both types. One may feel that no advanced training is necessary for either, or that advanced training is essential for both, or, again, that such training is desirable for one but superfluous for the other. Even when homogeneous types of libraries are isolated, there remain wide variations within each type, for clearly there are considerable functional differences between institutions which broadly fit a common general heading. The collection on Americana and the collection on insurance may

both be "special," but the implications for graduate study are by no means the same in both cases. Similarly, the problems which beset a public-library system in a great city and those which are presented to a library in a small community are quite different, and the implications for advanced study vary accordingly. And even within a single library the various activities, although all coming under the term "librarianship," may stir up far different reactions with respect to the necessity for and nature of advanced study.

These confusions in thinking about graduate study in librarianship have naturally resulted in considerable criticism. The most recent and perhaps the most forceful is incorporated—sometimes outspoken, sometimes by implication—in the pamphlet bearing the title *Conditions and trends in education for librarianship*, by Ralph Munn.⁴ One's reaction to the position taken by Mr. Munn will depend on one's conception of graduate study. Already, signs are not wanting that Mr. Munn sounded the sentiments of a large number of practicing librarians. Yet one may applaud everything he says and still feel that only a part of the story has been told.

In fairness to Mr. Munn it should be pointed out that his major preoccupation is with the first-year curriculum. Logically enough, he sees library training as essentially designed to prepare staff members for specific jobs; therefore he concludes (and I think rightly) that the curriculum should be developed in terms of the problems and activities of the established library. His emphasis on variations in kinds of libraries (and consequent variations thereby indicated in a scheme of preparation) is very well taken and deserves the fullest recognition.

When Mr. Munn comes to consider the nature of advanced training, he is still anchored to the position from which he viewed first-year training. Here, too, he is concerned with the specific job and so comes to the logical conclusion that "except for the director and about six department heads and specialists . . . the Pittsburgh staff [and, by implication, staffs in similar public libraries] does not need more bibliographical or technical

⁴ New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1936.

training than is now given in one-year library schools. They do need far better general education, infinitely more book knowledge, and experience."

Now this is excellent as far as it goes; unfortunately it does not go very far beyond what should be perfectly obvious to anyone who has given much thought to the matter. Philosophically, Mr. Munn is not far from the position in which Voltaire placed Dr. Pangloss; except for relatively minor improvements which Mr. Munn recognizes, he sees contemporary library forms as "the best of all possible in this best of worlds." Indeed, anyone glued too firmly to the *status quo*, whether in librarianship or government or whatever, in the nature of the case must close the door to experimentation in new forms.⁵

Let me illustrate. Mr. Munn, in common with all progressives in the library field, has often expressed grave concern over the great masses without ready access to public-library service. But as long as he limits library training, whether elementary or advanced, to contemporary library practices and existing library forms, he definitely omits consideration of the non-serviced areas and groups. Parenthetically it may be noted that this problem has loomed large in the consideration of certain schools offering advanced training; and it has nothing whatever to do with turning out more accomplished librarians for already established institutions. In short, the emphasis is definitely upon library problems, not library employees.

There is still another phase of graduate study in librarianship which is altogether overlooked by those who conceive the advanced curriculum solely as a training ground. This consists of an evaluation of accepted methods in terms of the ends they are designed to achieve. All library activities derive their meaning from certain ends considered worthy, but we often become so involved in the mechanics of daily procedures that

⁵ It is only fair to Mr. Munn to emphasize that, in fact, he is not oblivious to the need for improvements in library staffs. In his 1933 report he foresees the provision of subject-matter specialists in his library—persons with much more training than is customarily found in library personnel. As I interpret his position, however, the improvements he seeks are best achieved by additional training in subject bibliography. No one can logically object to this, but the fact remains that the improvements envisaged are conceived within the present framework of library economy.

we fail to question whether they contribute to the ends we hold to be basic. Again an illustration or two will help to clarify.

Consider cataloging. The catalog was originally conceived as a guide to the contents of the library, and, in fact, this remains its principal function today. But so complex has the modern catalog become, especially in the large library, that one may be permitted to question how efficiently it actually functions at the hands of a patron uninitiated into its more recondite aspects. Now advanced training in cataloging may take the direction of learning more about the technical preparation of books, such as incunabula, books without title-pages, unorthodox series, etc. Or it may attack the whole idea of the public catalog from the standpoint of the library patron, asking how well it works for him. Is it not possible that the multiplication of entries in the interest of completeness actually thwarts the user because of the resultant bulk and physical clumsiness of the instrument? Briefly, may we not question the concept of efficiency based on completeness if it leads to little more than bewilderment on the part of the prospective user? Perhaps the way out of this dilemma (if, indeed, it exists) may lie in the direction of emphasizing subject bibliographies in printed form, with a subsequent reduction in the number of catalog entries, thus restoring the catalog to its original and still most fundamental purpose—that of acting as a guide to the contents of the library. Such decisions as have been suggested should not be lightly arrived at; most important of all, they should not be based solely on a subjective logic but should depend upon an objective empiricism. The assumption that the more complete the catalog and the greater the number and variety of entries the better the catalog for all purposes is one which deserves some honest questioning.

Another field where basic assumptions deserve analysis is book selection. To illustrate, let us consider one important branch of this activity—the selection of books for children. Certainly in the public library there is probably no department where standards of selection are so rigidly applied; here more than elsewhere the criterion of readers' enjoyment must always

be supplemented by (if not actually subordinated to) a standard of literary quality. Now this dependence upon literary standards presupposes a beneficial effect upon the reader, and the censorship imposed in literary terms is based on the awareness that there may be such a thing as "harmful reading." Considered historically, it is evident that the standards are not final and irrevocable; indeed, what is circumspect today may be outlawed tomorrow. The time when the historical novels of Henty and the success stories of Oliver Optic were thoroughly respectable library book stock is not too distant to escape the memory of most of us. Behind the standards imposed one day and revoked the next looms the question: What difference does it make? *Is* a child necessarily better off for having read one type of literature or for having refrained from reading another type? Is there actually any carry-over from reading done in youth to that done in adult life? And may not one raise the further question whether the reading which is "good" for one person may be valueless if not positively harmful for another? In short, the assumption that standards of selection somewhat arbitrarily established are proper guides in book selection may be questioned with reference to the ends achieved.

Or consider the problem of library finance. Surely here is a field of tremendous concern to all practitioners, regardless of library or particular position within it. The students in the traditional first-year library school are taught various aspects of finance—the nature of tax support, the fundamentals of budget-making, the preparation of financial statements, etc. Inevitably appears the plaint (undoubtedly just) that the libraries never receive enough money, that salaries are too low, that book appropriations are altogether inadequate. And the solution? Everyone is familiar with the perennial prescription: we must convince the community that the library is more deserving; we must lobby for more funds; we must ally with "pressure groups" to insure better financial treatment. Few people stop long enough to realize that, after all, library finance cannot be considered as a thing apart, that it is one element in a complex pattern of public finance, and only as we understand the

problems of governmental finance can we appreciate the true nature of library support. On the contrary, a librarian will argue to the last syllable in favor of a special library tax, even though every reputable economist in the country agrees that taxes for special earmarked purposes are fiscally unsound. My point is not to stir up additional controversy on this particular problem but rather to point out that a real need exists for advanced study in library finance, and it lies in the direction of relating the library to the whole fiscal structure. True enough, in a limited perspective this type of training may have little to do with one's efficiency in administering a library, but it has everything to do with a proper appreciation of the status of the library as one among many other public services.

Thus far emphasis has been placed on certain utilitarian aspects of library study—study with definite implications for library practice. It is altogether possible, however, to conceive a legitimate curriculum of advanced training quite irrelevant to practical library economy. Historical studies furnish a case in point. Certainly the whole history of the library movement—its origins, the changes it has witnessed, the innovations it has experienced—is instinct with the stuff of exciting research. This means, of course, much more than the dry chronicling of dates, places, and personalities; it means relating the library to the social and historic forces and pulls which gave it birth and subsequently shaped its character. Library origins in America and abroad apparently have little in common; indeed, the library in certain sections of America shows a far different origin than it exhibits in other sections. Merely to state this fact is a commonplace; to approach the fact with a curious “why?” opens the way to stimulating investigation, the nature of which has hardly as yet been realized.

The fields of investigation just cited are illustrative of what graduate study in librarianship might be. With perhaps most of them the practitioner will not be concerned; in fact, the closer his interests are related to the daily necessities of library administration, the less likely he is to be interested in the results of such study. But he should realize that it has a place,

and that in time it may even contribute to a profound revision in the nature of the duties with which he is most intimately concerned. In the second place, it is evident that for certain types of study the traditional first-year library-school curriculum, as a training ground, is altogether irrelevant, or at least occupies but minor significance. Training in historiography is clearly essential to fruitful research in library history; a sound background in economics, and particularly in the principles of public finance, is basic to a thoroughgoing study of problems in library finance. Once the legitimacy of such problems as have been listed is recognized, simple logic dictates that the student be equipped with appropriate tools to deal with them. And, on the other hand, since the first-year library school has never been intended to prepare students for advanced study of this type, the mere possession of the first-year training is no guaranty that the possessor can satisfactorily pursue such study.

Clearly, then, librarianship as a field for graduate work offers a great opportunity to the prospective student. Owing to the relative recency of the whole movement for advanced study, the field is virtually unexplored, and hence the imaginative investigator should not have the difficulty in staking out a worthy problem that is experienced by the student in the older and more firmly established disciplines. The important word in this respect is "imaginative"; this means the student will not be bound by existing forms in librarianship but will prefer to regard the library as an end product of certain forces, or as a means designed to achieve certain social ends; he will not be so much concerned with *how* certain things happen but rather with *why* they happen that way and what their significance is.

It will help to draw the whole argument for graduate study in librarianship to a focus if we attempt a synthesis, pointing out certain possible lines such study might follow. In this synthesis we shall not be limited by the curriculums in existing advanced or graduate library schools but rather concerned with delineating various types of graduate study that may profitably be pursued.

The most obvious type of advanced training is that which is

based on, and is a continuation of, the first-year library-school curriculum. It is undoubtedly true that most assistants in libraries organized definitely for the use of scholars, or in large libraries which recognize service to scholarship as one of their functions, could improve their effectiveness by additional training. This is likely to be of two kinds: technical training, to assure greater proficiency in the preparation of library materials, and bibliographical training, both in acquaintance with published resources and in their use. As Munn has pointed out, there is not likely to be much demand for this type of training; nevertheless, it is probably the kind of training that many people have in mind when they think of advanced training in librarianship. Perhaps for this reason it has been most liberally provided in the schools offering work beyond the first year.

Belonging in the same general category is the curriculum of the *Ecole Nationale des Chartes*, where the emphasis falls very definitely on the preparation of archivists and curators of scholarly libraries. Courses in historical method (including paleography, bibliography, diplomatics, civil and canon law, etc.) are strongly emphasized; in fact, the primary emphasis is placed on French history and historiography, and a thorough training of this nature is considered basic in the development of competent archivists and librarians.⁶ It may be said in passing that practically all instruction of this type may be received in this country in the universities which maintain advanced library schools, though in no case is it completely available in the library schools themselves.

Training of the type described may properly be called advanced, though it obviously has nothing to do with research. It includes simply the acquisition of certain techniques and abilities that are likely to be useful on the job and that presuppose certain basic training before they may be satisfactorily mastered. There is another type of study, however, whose application to daily library problems may or may not be

⁶ For a much more elaborate discussion of the school see Maurice Prou, "L'Ecole des Chartes," *Revue des deux mondes*, January 15, 1927.

immediate, but which, in the long run, may exert a far greater influence on the course of library development. Such studies are based on an objective appraisal of librarianship—its meaning, its achievements, and its failures. This type of investigation has earlier been hinted at, but I propose now to consider it somewhat more systematically.

Librarians are accustomed to use certain terms quite glibly, without a clear and definite understanding of their real meaning. Two of the most flagrant examples are "library service" and "library needs." These terms invariably dominate programs of library planning and evaluation, yet their meaning is extremely vague. What, after all, is library service? We have been told innumerable times that one-third of the American population has adequate service available and another third has mediocre service; it requires but little reflection to realize that this simple division is quite arbitrary and open to varying interpretations. Adequate in terms of what? Money? Circulation? People served? Types of books provided? Personnel? Size of book stock? Hours of operation? Merely to list these factors is to suggest the tremendous variations between libraries, and between communities boasting library service. To reduce these variations to concrete terms implies measurement, and it is precisely this type of investigation which certain of the graduate schools are undertaking. Opinion may differ concerning its value, but it is hard to see how one can honestly express concern over a vitalized and fruitful conception of library performance and yet remain indifferent to such studies. They supply data which are the very essence of library planning.

Similarly, the areas without service are no less the concern of the student. No program designed to improve conditions with respect to library establishment and library service, regardless of what that term connotes, can be intelligently devised without considering realistically and concretely the sections of the country which for one reason or another have failed to provide some type of library service for themselves. Clearly, it is only by such an understanding that a program for the future may be intelligently planned.

The appraisals here suggested are concerned with what may be called the library's "static"—what it actually is, its potentialities for service, what it is equipped to do. Perhaps even more significant is its actual performance—its "dynamic." Librarians are usually able to present gross figures of circulation, registration, financial support, and expenditures; they are sometimes able to present these figures broken down into more pertinent categories, such as the kinds of books circulated, the expenditures for certain purposes, and the geographical areas and occupational groups represented in the registration. They are seldom prepared, however, to present a thoroughgoing analysis of the library's operation in terms of the elements in the general population which actually use the library and what they use the library for. Surely it is not illogical to expect that a program for extension of facilities and services can best be posited against a factual background of attractions and frustrations with respect to the library. One cannot say why certain groups in the population fail to use the library until one knows with some definiteness what those groups are.

In some respects, perhaps the most obvious application of measurement to library practice is to costs;—what do specific processes cost? Library literature furnishes plentiful evidence of preoccupation with this problem, especially in the technical processes; and, in fact, a considerable amount of work has been done on it. Most of the investigations have been carried on in particular institutions and usually have been devoted to no more than one or two phases of the internal operations, such as cataloging. The attention given to cost analysis, and the constantly recurring demand for objective consideration of this problem, make it one of particular interest to the profession, and one or two of the graduate schools have recognized its importance in their research programs.⁷

One of the most important, if also most difficult, applications of measurement is to personnel. What qualities or attainments

⁷ Robert Miller, "Cost accounting for libraries: a technique for determining the labor costs of acquisition and cataloguing work" (doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago Graduate Library School, 1936).

contribute to the making of a good librarian? Personnel studies are plentiful in other fields, and there has long been a demand for such studies in the library. That the demand has been all but unheeded bears witness to the difficulty of the problem. But just as definite progress has been achieved in personnel measurement in education, business administration, etc., so it must some day come about in librarianship, and the first steps are likely to be taken by one of the schools offering advanced work.

The types of study thus far discussed all spring from the library as we know it; they are suggested by an inner urge or necessity in the form of problems confronting librarians who desire to do their regular jobs more satisfactorily, or problems confronting planning agencies in their attempt to work out a system of more extensive library provision. But when one leaves the walls of the traditional library and permits one's imagination to soar into the unknown of fundamental truths, in terms of which library activities achieve their real significance, then an entirely new field of investigation is opened—or rather several new fields. First there is history.

The bare suggestion concerning historical studies, earlier presented in this paper, may be readily elaborated, and specific problems for investigation are listed merely by way of illustration.

1. The relationship between libraries (and books) and contemporary social (or economic or political) conditions. Several stimulating hypotheses have been offered by Borden, Wellard, Joeckel, and others. The uncovering of pertinent evidence together with its interpretation is as yet in the future. This problem may readily be studied with respect to different countries, different states, and different periods.

2. Ideas prevalent at various times—as indicated by book content, pamphlets, and other printed sources—and their dissemination. This is strictly not a library problem at all, except as the library functioned as a distributing center itself. However, to one who can see no occasion for a study in the library field unless the library itself be actively implicated, it may be

pointed out that such a study should go far toward relating the library as a social force to the whole structure of agencies concerned with the dissemination of ideas.

3. Changes in social attitudes as reflected in, or influenced by, developments in literature; e.g., the novel of social reform (Dickens), the treatment of sex in fiction, the current sociological novels, etc.

4. The study of historical personalities in terms of what they read. In this connection Lowes's study of Coleridge in *The road to Xanadu* at once comes to mind.

Many studies conceived in historical terms may be pursued with reference to the present. In a sense such investigations may be considered sociological. Thus, in place of studying reading historically, one may study it contemporaneously. What are people reading today? This problem may be divided into such questions as what kinds of people (described in terms of age, sex, occupation, education, etc.) read what kinds of books or magazines or newspapers, and what sources are depended upon by various groups for specific kinds of reading matter? In the first stage, the problem is one of accurate description—perhaps it may properly be called reporting on a high plane. Such description, informing as it may be, is preliminary to the further question concerning why certain identified trends are what they are. Here, again, there undoubtedly will be many who think such studies are extraneous, academic, and even trivial. However, if it be granted that the reading people do bears some relation to what they are and how they act and the way they think, it is difficult to see how such studies as have been denominated "sociological" may be lightly disregarded. Furthermore, from this standpoint it is quite as important to know something about the nonreaders and what takes the place of reading in their lives.

A third broad field which the student may profitably explore is the psychological. Precisely what happens as a result of reading? A good deal of intelligent book selection is based on the assumption that it makes a difference what people read, but we are very much in the dark concerning the nature of the

difference, and we all but overlook the likelihood that people's reactions to a given piece of print will vary in countless ways. Studies directed at determining the reading of specific groups may well be supplemented by others ascertaining what the effects are on the readers. In this connection it is interesting to observe that at least one prominent scholar has concluded that children read too much and that in the interest of a well-organized personality it is far better for them to spend their time in other types of activity. Thus the value of reading itself becomes suspect. Suggestions for specific investigations may be had by considering recent studies in a somewhat parallel field—the motion picture. See, for example, the studies by Blumer on the relation between moving pictures and conduct, and those by Thurstone and his students on the effect of moving pictures in shaping attitudes. One may readily imagine similar studies in the field of reading, substituting book and periodical reading for the cinema. Perhaps to summarize psychological studies of reading we may state the problem in this way. Sociological studies in reading, and indeed, practically all library activity in its public relationships, are based on the tacit assumption that reading *per se* incorporates a certain value; the psychological studies are designed to ask whether this is so, wherein the value lies, and how the value differs for varying groups of people.

The organization of graduate study here presented obviously does not exhaust the possibilities; the purpose in offering it has been merely to suggest directions which prospective students may be interested in following. It may be argued that at least some of the fields listed properly belong within the purview of already established disciplines, such as history, sociology, psychology, and political science. Perhaps this is so; I am not so much concerned with prescribing where the studies should be pursued but rather with pointing out the desirability that they be pursued somewhere. More specifically, I have attempted to offer something of an answer to the skeptic who cannot see the possibilities for graduate study in librarianship.

One more point deserves comment. We are accustomed to

divide library activity into certain more or less well-defined segments, such as technical processes, work with children, college-library work, school-library work, etc., and, quite naturally, to expect advanced study in these specific branches to be carried on under the direction of a specialist in each. This is certainly logical as long as we are considering advanced study as a means to greater efficiency on the job. But graduate study designed to investigate basic assumptions underlying library activity, such as has been outlined above, presupposes, perhaps even more than a familiarity with daily practical procedures, an acquaintance with the methodology of research, such as historical method, experimentation, and statistical analysis. In short, research in librarianship, if it is to achieve the respectability gained by other branches of scholarship, must be subjected to techniques no less rigid. And just as the results achieved in other fields may be used in library practice, so the findings with respect to reading and library activity may be taken over by students of society to illumine and help interpret social phenomena.

Librarianship as a field of research is still a relatively untried discipline. The opportunity for implementing it with significant investigations looms large before those who would be pioneers, provided they are willing to cast off too conventional modes of thought and have the courage to break new ground.

THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

LEON CARNOVSKY: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, I (1931), 476; and III (1933), 95.

JOHN D. COWLEY was born in 1897 at Sydney, New South Wales. He was educated at Merchant Taylors' School and at St. John's College, Oxford (B.A., Honour School of *Litterae Humaniores*, 1921; M.A., 1922). From 1916 to 1919 he participated in the war as a member of the machine gun corps. After leaving Oxford, Mr. Cowley accepted the position of assistant librarian in the Middle Temple Library, London (1922-24). The following year he received the Diploma of the Library Association and was appointed county librarian of Lancashire. He served in this capacity until 1934, when he was appointed to his present position of director of the University of London School of Librarianship, University College.

Mr. Cowley is the author of *A bibliography of abridgments . . . of English law* (Selden Society, 1932), and *The use of reference material* (Grafton, 1937). He has contributed chapters on Great Britain to *Rôle et formation du bibliothécaire* (International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, 1935), and to *Popular libraries of the world* (American Library Association, 1933). He has examined for the Library Association and is one of the Association's examination assessors. He was one of the British representatives at the Cheltenham, Berne, and Chicago conferences of the International Federation of Library Associations. In 1936 he undertook a survey of the libraries of Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Austria, and Switzerland for the Library Association. During the first three months of 1937 Mr. Cowley has been studying training for librarianship in the United States under the terms of a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation.

ARNE KILDAL, library counselor for public libraries to the Norwegian government, was born December 10, 1885, in Oslo, Norway. In 1904 he received the Cand. philos. degree from the Royal Norwegian Frederiks University (Kongelige norsk Frederiks universitet) at Oslo, and the following year came to America to study library science at the New York State Library School. He remained in the United States for five years, practicing as well as studying American library methods. After receiving his Bachelor's degree in library sci-

ence he cataloged the John Thatcher collection of incunabula at Albany, worked as a reviser in the Yale University Library's cataloging department, taught during two sessions of the Indiana Public Library Commission's summer school for librarians (1907 and 1908), served as an assistant in the cataloging division of the Library of Congress (1908-9) and as head cataloger of the Bureau of Labor Library in Washington.

Mr. Kildal returned to Norway in 1910 to become librarian of the Bergens offentlige bibliotek. From 1920 to 1925 he was in Washington again, this time as press attaché to the Norwegian legation. From 1925 until he assumed his present duties in 1933 he was director of the International League of Norsemen (Nordmanns-forbundet) at Oslo.

Mr. Kildal has been president of the Norwegian Library Association (1914-16), and is the present secretary of the Norwegian-American Foundation. He is the editor of an American edition of Henrik Ibsen's speeches and letters, the translator of a Norwegian edition of Oscar Wilde's *A house of pomegranates*, and the author of numerous treatises and pamphlets in Norwegian dealing chiefly with library and literary subjects. He has been literary adviser to J. W. Cappelen's publishing house in Oslo, and Scandinavian correspondent for the International News Service and for the *Literary digest*.

LOUIS ROUND WILSON: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, II (1932), 71; and III (1933), 192-93.

THE COVER DESIGN

THE Puritan printer, William Jones, whose mark appears on the cover, was born about 1572, the son of a Northampton cloth-worker. In 1589 he became the apprentice of John Windet and obtained his freedom in 1596. For twenty years he did business as a book-seller, but about 1617 he bought—or rented—the printing equipment of Ralph Blower from the latter's widow, and set up a shop in Ship Alley, Red Cross Street, Cripplegate. Despite the fact that he evidently had but one press, he printed a large number of books. Nor were they small in size or easy of printing. A number of his books were in Latin, one was in Latin and Greek, and another in Spanish and English. His mathematical works, of which he published several, either required the use of difficult figures, as did Gunter's

Canon Triangulorum, or, like Henry Briggs's *Arithmetica logarithmetica*, the composition of difficult tables.

Of interest also among Jones's books is an early manual of shorthand, John Willis' *School-maister to the Arte of Stenographie* and, above all, Captain Smith's *New England's Trials* (1620 and 1622).

But Jones is chiefly notable for his Puritanism. He printed the savage attacks of the Puritan divine, Alexander Cook, and the sermons of a number of other clergymen of the same party. Nor did he content himself simply with aiding propaganda. In 1604 he laid information against Richard Bancroft, Lord Bishop of London, the most influential prelate in England, for permitting the circulation of Catholic books and failing to suppress seminary priests. He received for his pains several months' imprisonment. When, however, printers, under the none too gentle prompting of Archbishop Laud, contributed to the restoration of St. Paul's Cathedral in 1630, Jones gave twice as much as any other printer—£40 (in modern value, \$2,000)—a subscription probably made out of a desire to placate that bitter enemy of Puritanism. Jones perhaps lived to see the triumph of the Puritan cause at the end of the Civil War, but of his later life almost nothing is known.

William Jones used for his mark a printing press with one pressman operating the screw of the press while another, holding two ink balls, waits to re-ink the form. Both men, it is of interest to note, wear candles on their heads. Close by, a compositor is working at the case. Around the mark is the motto, *Aliis serviemus, nosmetipsos conterimus* ("For others we serve and wear ourselves away").

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY

REVIEWS

The curriculum in library schools. By ERNEST J. REECE. ("Columbia University studies in library service," No. 4.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. xii+200. \$3.00.

The author of *The curriculum in library schools* analyzes "systematized preparation" for the profession of librarianship. He offers, first, an excellent overview of library service in this country, giving a detailed analysis of what library service has been and the emerging characteristics of library work of the future. He next presents a history of the agencies responsible for the preparation of the ever increasing force of library workers, tabulating the topics which have entered into the courses offered at one time or another by these agencies. "Adapting the curriculum," an academic approach to the problem follows, which, when briefed, presents a clear outline of curriculum construction. Mr. Reece gives concrete illustrations of modifications and extensions of the curriculum and considers the academic levels on which professional study may wisely be carried on. In the final chapters, "The curriculum in perspective" and "Conditions for the curriculum," he considers what pertinent subjects properly interrelated may be expected to accomplish; and what the external factors, such as methods and quality of instruction, and ability and aptitude of students, contribute to the success of the library-school course.

Mr. Reece presents his findings and his analysis in such detail that it is difficult to discover the objective toward which the details are focused. This reviewer finds difficulty in following the thread of thought because of the infinite detail and analysis by subdivision. It is as though the thoughts were wrapped in phrases and one had to unwrap the swathed ideas carefully lest some part be lost in the surrounding folds or lest one miss the essential point in the center of the material. The amount of detail is accounted for by the accumulation of course topics from many library schools and the enumeration of the activities carried on by libraries. The careful analysis by subdivision is undertaken in order to break down the stereotype of the conventional library-school curriculum. This division and rephrasing, while obscuring the development of the discussion, contribute to a fresh terminology which is badly needed if the curriculum is to be remolded to suit changed demands. Some phrasings as well as the concepts are prophetic, offering patterns which will sound as familiar in the future as do earlier statements in Mr. Reece's briefer study of *Some possible developments in library education*.¹

¹ Chicago: American Library Association, 1924. Pp. 25.

From the point of view of the library-school faculty the chapter devoted to curriculum construction is the most valuable and should serve as the "master sheet" for curriculum building and curriculum criticism for years to come. Mr. Reece lists "objectives" as the first requisite of curriculum planning and itemizes objectives as (1) the field to be served, defined geographically or by type of service; (2) the available support through the sponsoring institution; (3) the market for the product; (4) the kind of applicants available; and (5) other institutions in the field.

It is always very difficult to define new objectives for procedures which have grown up out of existing demands. Mr. Reece recognizes this fact when he says:

In building or maintaining a curriculum of any kind the natural tendency is to concentrate upon questions which press for decision, and which spring directly from conditions within the school and clientele concerned. For the most part this fact has governed the discussion so far in the present volume.²

He moves toward a new objective but does not go far enough when he distinguishes "education" for librarianship from "training" as pre-supposing a "concern with a definite body of knowledge, possessive of intellectual responsibility, judgment, and initiative, and appreciation of the purposes and standards of the tasks in view; in short, it implies whatever is prerequisite to practicing a profession."³ That is, the objectives are to be found in the profession as practiced. What will constitute this profession in the future is suggested in the chapter on "What library work is becoming." By making the curriculum the means of preparation for the profession and making the profession the objective of the curriculum there is danger of thinking in a circle. At some point the thinking should escape from the circle and travel toward a new goal in terms of an external phenomenon which will, in turn, offer a new objective for the profession. Such departure is suggested in the chapter on "Adapting the curriculum" but is not clearly emphasized.

The external phenomenon which most easily suggests itself is the function of communication by means of graphic records as an essential tool for democratic society. The author calls for a "deliberate definition" of aims or "for a philosophy or rationale." But, he says, since

library work is so diversified that the things for which it stands may not be compressible into a simple formula . . . this might be confining even if attainable. Perhaps the wise procedure for librarians is to select and define their ends step by step rather than with finality. This would provide goals . . . subject to progressive revision.⁴

Thus by devoting the attention to library work "step by step" the discussion fails to reach a desirable consideration of objectives in terms of the external phenomenon of communication by print and the place which organized collections of print bear to the consumption of reading matter in a democracy. Until the curriculum preparing for library service leaps beyond the work of

² P. 155.

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ P. 14.

the library to its place and effectiveness in society, the profession will tread the endless belt of repetition. The fuller consideration of an adequate objective of library service will have to be left to another volume.

The appearance of the present study embracing much more than the objective of the curriculum is particularly important at this time because of the expiration of the first half-century of formal professional education for librarianship. The study stands as a milepost from which we may look back over our history and forward to the signs which may mark the education for librarianship of the future.

ETHEL M. FAIR

*Library School
New Jersey College for Women*

How shall we educate teachers and librarians for library service in the school?

By JOINT COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES AND THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. [viii]+74. \$1.00.

No more significant question confronts the teaching and library professions of today than the problem raised by this publication. If teaching and librarianship are really merging, as some educationists like Dr. Jessup, Dean Russell, and the late Sir John Adams have contended, and the educational institution of the future, from kindergarten to graduate school, is to become some sort of a cross between library and school, then nothing can be more timely than the consideration of library instruction for teachers.

This question the Joint Committee, composed of four librarians and three teachers college presidents, undertook to study in the fall of 1934. At its initial Cleveland meeting it appointed as director, Miss Lucile F. Fargo, research associate in Columbia's School of Library Service, and formulated in the form of four questions the problem to which they sought an answer. These may be stated together in the summary question: What library instruction shall be given to teachers, teacher-librarians, and full-time school librarians, and at what points in the teacher-training program can such instruction be advantageously introduced?

The Committee's choice of a research director was most fortunate. Not only was there a background of successful school librarianship in her favor, but in addition there was the fact that she had directed one of the few accredited library schools in a teacher-training institution and had inaugurated there nonprofessional library courses for teachers. And, in addition, she had been able to enlist her seminar of students, including school and teachers college librarians, from various parts of the country. As a result, the findings impress one as intimately related to the actual problems confronting those in teachers college work.

The report itself is divided into two parts. From the Committee comes an

excellent summary of existing library curriculums in teacher-training institutions and a set of thirteen guiding principles for setting up such curriculums. Out of the seminar Miss Fargo conducted at Columbia has come a glossary of terms and a proposed curriculum which constitute the second part of the report.

What the Committee found in teachers colleges today was mostly confusion, with "library science" including everything from a Freshman lecture on library use through a thirty-semester-hour professional curriculum. This confusion now gives way to some order as the Committee classifies library instruction into two fields: (a) library use for teachers and (b) library management for teacher-librarians and full-time school librarians. For the first field there are three guiding principles advocating for all teachers an acquaintance with books and libraries, a knowledge of the library's place in education, and an appreciation of school-library integration. In illustration of these principles, the seminar has prepared objectives and outlines for four courses, totaling six semester hours, and suggestions for possible correlation of these courses with existing teacher-training curriculums.

For the second field there are five general and five special principles emphasizing the necessity for relating these curriculums to the job, for keeping the student's vocational goal in mind, for recruiting carefully, for retaining "content" courses, and for limiting the number of institutions which should be permitted to offer more than nonprofessional instruction. Three additional courses on the semiprofessional level, totaling eleven semester hours, have been outlined by the seminar in illustration of some of these principles.

The Committee is particularly to be congratulated for recognizing the fact that the teacher-librarian course can be based on the nonprofessional courses. It is unfortunate, however, that the Committee did not consider it necessary to establish a similar relationship between the teacher-librarian course and the school-librarian course. Desirable as it is for the student to make up his mind early whether his vocational goal will be classroom instruction or school librarianship, the fact remains that many students change their goals for one reason or another. As a result, the teacher-librarian enters the professional curriculum only to find a number of the courses telescoped by her previous training.

Over and above this there remains the fact that the line between classroom instruction and librarianship is apparently being gradually erased, if we may judge by current educational reform and by such recommendations in this report as affect non- and semi-professional instruction. If this be the case, should not all three programs represent an integrated whole which will permit a teacher to develop from a library-conscious classroom instructor into a school librarian without having to retrace her training steps? In short, should not the professional curriculum definitely take into account the non- and semi-professional courses and build on them?

As the Joint Committee itself has pointed out, however, "it has succeeded

merely in making a beginning in a field that deserves prolonged study and experimentation." That beginning, let it be said, has already influenced a number of teacher-training institutions to reorganize their present offerings or to institute new ones in the field of library instruction. It will be interesting to see how far a generation of library-trained teachers will affect our professional curriculums and bring about a new library-centered school.

LOUIS SHORES

Library School

George Peabody College for Teachers

The library key. An aid in using books and libraries. With questions for review and practice. By ZAIDEE BROWN. Rev. and enl. ed. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. viii + 109. \$0.70.

Learning to use the library in the junior high school. A manual consisting of individualized lessons to be given in English classes. By FLORENCE DAMON CLEARY. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. 80. \$0.75.

Library handbook, 1936-38. Olin Memorial Library, Wesleyan University. Compiled by FREMONT RIDER. 3d ed. Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan University, 1936. Pp. 92.

About books at the Olin Library, Wesleyan University, Vol. VII, No. 1 (September, 1936). Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan University, 1936. Pp. 12.

Cómo utilizar una biblioteca. Por JAVIER LASSO DE LA VEGA y JIMÉNEZ-PLACER. ("Publicaciones de la Facultad de Filosofía y Letras de la Universidad de Madrid.") Madrid: Gráfica Universal, 1935. Pp. [vi] + 126. 5 pesetas.

Guides to study material for teachers. In junior and senior high schools, junior colleges, adult education classes. By MARY E. TOWNSEND and ALICE G. STEWART. ("Social science service series," No. 1.) New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. 113.

This group of new publications relating to instruction in the use of the library bears evidence to the interest in the problem of assisting individuals to use more effectively the material available in libraries and often overlooked because of lack of familiarity with library resources and organization. Of these, the new edition of a book that has proved of great value to all agencies concerned with formal instruction in the use of libraries and books claims first attention. Nor is the examination disappointing. The new edition of *The library key*, with its inclusion of more detailed material in the various sections, retains the features that made the first edition outstandingly useful, namely, the clear and specific discussions of fundamental library practice and of the more important reference books. The expansion of the material on the Dewey Decimal Classification in the first section may be cited as an example

of the type of change that will make the book more valuable in the upper levels of instruction, as less supplementary material provided by the teacher will be necessary. Naturally, adjustment to the needs of younger students must be met by judicious pruning of required work.

Other additions include review questions and practice assignments at the end of chapters. These add materially to the value of the book for the busy librarian or teacher who is trying to add library instruction to an already overcrowded program. Provision for the continued use of the teacher's manual for the first edition, *Teaching the use of books and libraries*, by Ingles and McCague, is made by the careful indexing of the revised edition. While the inclusion of the additional material makes it impossible to use the page references in the teacher's manual, subject indexing assures the use of the manual with the new text. The book still remains one of the most complete and yet inexpensive guides for a minimum number of lessons in the use of the library for high-school and college levels.

Limited in its scope and reaching a group of students slightly below those for whom *The library key* is planned is the pamphlet *Learning to use the library in the junior high school*. It is not only because of its grade placement that this publication demands attention but also because it represents an attempt at a specific plan for combining library instruction with work in English. The topics chosen indicate careful study of the fields in which the greatest use of material associated with English may be expected, the lessons being grouped under six headings: "Introduction to your library"; "Adventuring in books"; "What I read in magazines"; "Lives of interesting people"; "Looking up the lives of favorite authors"; and "Riding your hobby." The lessons themselves are well adapted to the ages of the students for whom they are intended, the discussion being in suitable language and the examples having a definite appeal for junior high school students.

One hoping to find here very definite help in evolving a plan of integrating library lessons with the general school curriculum will be disappointed. The total amount bearing on this is less than ten pages. Its inclusion at all in a manual for pupils is questionable, and one might wish that the author had separated the directions for teacher and librarian and had assembled and elaborated them in a teacher's manual. However, the fact that each lesson is reproduced as a separate leaflet for student use lessens the defect attendant on the inclusion of teacher's material in a student manual.

The type of lessons indicates the need, in such a plan of integration, of lessons associated with other subjects, such as history and science, in order that the experience of the student in the use of books and libraries will not be limited to one field. Additional booklets taking up the problem of library lessons in the various subject fields of the junior high school curriculum and more extensive teacher's manuals would be an important contribution to the subject of library instruction at this level.

The *Library handbook* of the Olin Memorial Library represents another,

and by far the most frequent, type of approach to the problem of assisting readers to use libraries more effectively. The amount of material included is unusually large for this kind of aid. Following a description of the library and a statement of its rules and privileges, some fifty pages are devoted to the topics: "The use of books—their parts and makeup"; "How to find books in the library"; "How to find material in books"; and "Getting the most out of books." The directions given for locating various types of reference material are very specific; and, although the examples are drawn entirely from the collections of one library, the books are of general interest so that the manual is useful to any student attempting to read on the problem of how to use any library effectively. The publication *About books*, by the same library, is typical of the news notes issued frequently to keep library patrons acquainted with new accessions and particular features of the collection.

Far more ambitious in scope than the *Library handbook* and yet similar in aim is the publication of the University of Madrid on how to use a library. Inspired by the study of various English and American manuals, the director of the University Library prepared this very useful manual for the library in Madrid. The treatment, however, is much more general than is indicated by this avowed aim, and the compilation is useful to the student of library organization in that the chief schemes of library classification are described clearly and simply, and types of bibliographies are discussed and described. The annotations on the books are particularly useful. The manual does not attempt to cover the whole range of reference tools, but for dictionaries, encyclopedias, biographical dictionaries, and bibliographies of various countries it is an excellent selected list.

More strictly bibliographical in its nature is the publication *Guides to study material for teachers*. This can be associated with the instruction type of manual only in so far as it is a valuable and highly selective list of publications useful to students. It is a guide for teachers, students, and other library users of social science publications. The avowed purpose of the compilation is to select materials shown by experience to be most valuable and practical for teachers in junior and senior high schools, junior colleges, and adult education classes, with consideration given to accessibility and reasonableness of cost. The bibliography has the great virtue of bringing together in one convenient compilation items available in other lists and of annotating them to aid in selection.

The annotations are largely of the content type, though occasional attempts at evaluation are evident. Critical evaluation of material in the same field would add to the importance of the list but might extend its scope beyond the limits set for an inexpensive guide to materials.

The arrangement by subjects is very useful in the selection of materials. In this way the book fulfils admirably the expressed objective of facilitating "the rapid locating of material to meet specific needs" and of directing and

pointing to "unknown and new materials with which to enrich teaching." Whether as much can be admitted for the arrangement of entries by title rather than by author or compiler is debatable, although the claim is made that this method was followed in order to assist the user. The lists are so short that the possibly greater emphasis on subject matter resulting from this method may be more than offset by the time required of the person using this to check up material in a library. In many cases lack of distinctive titles will necessitate search under author entries (some of them corporate entries) or under detailed subject headings, resulting in loss of time for persons not especially conversant with the intricacies of library catalog entries.

The plan of arrangement by titles is not followed in the first section where publications of research associations and foundations and authoritative pamphlets are given. These are entered under source; addresses are included, which makes the list most useful and practical. In view of this organization the addition of a subject index to this section might be more useful than the list of associations, which in the main parallels the general arrangement of the section. This list, however, does enable the user to find publications that might be referred to by the name of the organization responsible for compilation when this differs from that of the publisher.

Section 2 contains a good list of the more common library aids. An evaluation of these books in terms of grade placement would add materially to the value of the annotations, since titles suitable to the various school levels are included.

The third division represents highly selective decisions on the more important bibliographical aids. In less than twenty pages a wide range of tools from the fields of national and subject bibliography is represented. Sections 4 and 5 include magazines, newspapers, and news sheets useful to students and teachers. In many of the annotations grade placement is indicated.

Each of these pamphlets adds to the growing list of contributions in an important field of library service. Their limitations, however, indicate the need of additional studies and manuals in a phase of work that is perennially interesting to librarians.

LULU RUTH REED

Graduate Library School
University of Chicago

A history of printing in the United States. The story of the introduction of the press and of its history and influence during the pioneer period in each state of the Union, Vol. II: Middle & South Atlantic states. By DOUGLAS C. McMURTRIE. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1936. Pp. xxvi+[1]+462. \$6.00.

While a student in the Graduate Library School, the reviewer became interested in Americana and early American printing. The interest soon became a

passion, and when it was time to choose a subject for the customary dissertation, this field was clearly indicated. During the reading three authorities stood out on a level altogether their own. At that time, 1933-34, the history by Isaiah Thomas was still the chief in the field. A more up-to-date—though much shorter—summary was given by Dr. Wroth in *Peddie's Printing*; and the very latest discoveries were reported in a long series of pamphlets and monographs by Mr. McMurtrie. Material there was in abundance, but it was scattered in all sorts of periodicals, pamphlets, and independent studies, and it was quite a task merely to list it all.

The student of 1937 will have no such difficulty. Instead of being obliged to consult scores of more or less well-informed articles and monographs, he may obtain all the salient facts quite comfortably from Mr. McMurtrie's monumental history. The material for Pennsylvania alone, for example, runs well over one hundred items and covers a period of several decades. All this is presented in four compact chapters of continuous narration. It would be erroneous, however, to suppose that the author has done no more than to gather such facts as have been discovered and to retell them in a unified work. Even if this were the case, the author would have accomplished something of immense value. But Mr. McMurtrie is nothing if not an independent investigator, and whatever facts are retained from other investigators may be taken as tested and accepted on the basis of his own findings. Where they do not agree, the author has wisely avoided dogmatism by merely listing the pros and cons and leaving the reader to draw his own conclusions. On the basis of his own rich findings he has a healthy respect for documental evidence, and where such evidence is as yet lacking, he does not willingly venture on the slippery ground of deduction.

Although the present is the first of the proposed four volumes to appear in print, it is the second of the set. Next in order of appearance will come the third and the fourth volumes, dealing with the states west of the Atlantic seaboard.

The first volume in the set, which will comprise a general survey of the work and methods of the pioneer printer, and the geographical extension of the press from ocean to ocean, together with the chapters recording the history of early printing in the New England states, will be put to press at about the same time as the fourth volume, which will also contain a thorough index to all the volumes of this history.

In many respects the first volume promises to be the most interesting as well as the most useful. For, although it is undoubtedly very important to have an accurate and up-to-date history of printing of the various states and cities in the country, the purely historical phase has already been somewhat extensively treated. On the other hand, except for Dr. Wroth's masterly *Colonial printer*, comparatively little has been written on the technique and equipment of the early printers. The same is true of practically all the larger aspects of early American printing, involving the craft as a whole. If Mr.

McMurtrie intends to supply this need, he will have given us a work of permanent value.

Quite apart from the rest, however, the present volume in itself is a most valuable acquisition to any library. In its fifteen chapters the last word is given on all the problems and perplexities pertaining to the introduction and spread of the printing art in Pennsylvania, Maryland, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, the District of Columbia, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia. Up to the present only Maryland has had an adequate history, in Dr. Wroth's *History of printing in colonial Maryland, 1686-1776*. But even here the period is limited to pre-Revolutionary times. The other states have had to wait until the appearance of the present work. The volume is further enhanced by the lavish reproduction of title-pages and other samples of early printing, some seventy examples in all. Even the end papers have been put to a most valuable use, displaying a map of the United States which presents the dates of the first-known printing in all the states. The volume is both durably and beautifully bound, and the type and general design of the work are of an excellence which automatically places the *History of printing in the United States* among the year's typographical masterpieces. Surely the one thousand sets of the first edition deserve to be oversubscribed before the last volume appears.

ARTHUR BERTHOLD

*Union Library Catalog
of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area*

A manual of style. Containing typographical rules governing the publications of the University of Chicago together with specimens of type used at the University of Chicago Press. 10th ed. Revised by MARY D. ALEXANDER. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. x+394. \$3.00.

That librarians find editorial duties often pressed upon them is attested by the wealth of material constantly issued under library imprints. One of the editor's chief responsibilities is that of maintaining consistency in the style of the matter passing under his scrutiny. Consistency implies a formula—a set of rules—and all editors who have labored over the problems of editorial practice will find in the *Manual of style* an "Emily Post of Editorial Practice."

The rules set forth in the *Manual* have been tested and developed over a period of nearly forty years. They had their beginnings in the notebooks of the first proofreaders at the University of Chicago Press. Each year new dictates of learned societies and changing modes in editorial practice have brought about their modification. The *Manual* is now completely up to date and in its tenth edition. As time has lent authority to its prescriptions and other learned presses have copied its recommendations, it has gained in prestige until now it has become the standard working tool of authors, editors, proofreaders, and printers.

An introductory section sets forth the principles underlying correct typography. General though these considerations must necessarily be, they stress the importance of harmony of book design—harmony secured when the type face is appropriate to the text it embodies, when the size of the face is suited to the format of the book, and when the various parts of the book make a balanced unit. There are rules for determining the area of the type page, width of the margin, the placing of legends, etc., and a brief discussion of the technical matters of spacing and leading. These general considerations follow, in the main, the advice given in Stanley Morison's *First principles of typography*. Those who escape the obligations of authorship or editorship can increase their appreciation of well-planned typography if they will acquaint themselves with the laws governing it as they are presented here.

Following these generalities is a chapter discussing the makeup of books, which prescribes the correct order for the preliminary pages, the treatment of the text (running heads, pagination, chapter titles and subtitles, boxed heads, initial letters, etc.), and the handling of reference material. Then follows the main section of the *Manual*, presenting the University of Chicago Press rules for composition. Capitalization, spelling and abbreviation, punctuation, the division of words, the use of italics, the treatment of quotations, footnotes, bibliographies, indexes, and legends and captions are all dealt with in detail. There are specific rules for every possible contingency. In many cases the rulings on matters which are still controversial may seem dogmatic, but the author or publisher must act while scholars are still debating, and the use of a carefully devised editorial system will insure the consistency vital to printed work.

The third section is devoted to the more general aspects of the work of authors, editors, and proofreaders. Authors are instructed in the subject of copyright, in the construction of indexes, and in the preparation of manuscripts for publication so as to insure the minimum costs for editorial alteration. Editors are fully informed on such matters as the estimation of manuscripts. Copyreaders, proofreaders, and copyholders receive appropriate assistance. The volume is completed by a Glossary of technical terms and a section containing specimens of type in use at the University of Chicago Press.

The new format of this tenth edition is pleasing, and the book is, as it should be, an excellent specimen of typography. There are a good many revisions. The introductory chapters have been entirely re-written and newly illustrated; the section on hyphenation, the glossary, and the index have been reconstructed; and a new chapter appears on letter-writing. The edition would be improved by an expansion of the Glossary, by an extension of the chapters dealing with general typographical principles, and by a more copious use of illustrations. Librarians may complain that library bibliographical practice is largely ignored in the rules governing the style for footnotes and bibliography—a state of affairs which obliges editors to alter library form to

current press practice. If some compromise could be worked out whereby the two styles could be merged in a way satisfactory to both librarians and publishers, the dilemma would be solved.

In spite of a few imperfections, it must be recognized that the *Manual of style* has a greater comprehensive value than any other work of its kind. Authors and editors will scarcely find a more useful or a more available tool; librarians will appreciate it not only as a handbook for their own consultation but as a work of reference for the assistance of all who are interested in determining the niceties of editorial style and as a vocational handbook for the better understanding of the activities of the printshop and the editorial office.

MARY M. McELDOWNEY

Library Quarterly
Chicago, Illinois

Microphotography for libraries. Papers presented to the Microphotography Symposium at the 1936 Conference of the American Library Association. Edited by M. LLEWELLYN RANEY. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. xi+138 (planographed). \$2.50.

A publication of unquestioned authenticity in a new field of research or technology is always of the keenest interest to the practitioners in that particular field. For that reason, alert librarians can hardly fail to consult this text. Microphotography is no longer a thing the librarian can afford to ignore; it is with us today, and the things which it holds promise of accomplishing are little less than phenomenal.

Even now we begin to hear vague rumors of the revolution this new application of photography may create in the whole field of reading material—production, utilization, and the methodology of storage and consultation. While it is possible and perhaps even wise for us to ignore these disrupting potentialities for the present, current applications are in use, and it is those applications and their problems that this volume presents as viewed by the majority of authorities in the field. These men have all ably outlined basic principles and trends in the matter of theory and the application of theory to actual problems. The book is not to be mistaken for a manual to be followed in the actual execution of microphotographic technique; rather it is a manual in problems and theories and the progress that has been made in their application.

Some of the problems that were discussed in the all-day session in Richmond have solved themselves. Others have been in part answered by new equipment and apparatus, and this, of course, is always true of a growing field. However, it in no way makes the value of *Microphotography for libraries* transitory, for it is a unique contribution toward the clarification and establishment of the microphotographic technique for librarians and others. The papers presented divide themselves into two parts: (1) papers outlining the theory and

the basic principles that have been and might be followed in the development and application of microphotography; (2) descriptive papers with reference to projects under way or proposed and actual laboratory organizations. It is not the scope of this review to summarize that material. The theory and applications are in all cases limited to this country, which indicates the need of a similar volume to cover European practice and trends. Several of the papers in the second classification will be new to those who were at the meeting since there was not time for their presentation there.

Aside from theory and principles, the book contains a mass of practical facts. Typical are: detailed mention of the equipment in use at many libraries, the rates at which reproductive service may be obtained at some of those libraries, a discussion of film editions of current newspapers which includes a list and subscription prices, and a Glossary of microphotographic terms. It is felt that the Glossary should be supplemented later, perhaps, by another which would add many terms not here included, omit others now included of a closely restricted technical nature, and, if possible, redefine yet other terms in accurate, scientific language comprehensible to the layman. That task is by no means an easy one.

The scope of the theory portion of the volume is extremely wide. Robert C. Binkley states the fundamental factors that should be considered in the manufacture of the microphotographic camera. Some of the problems in this paper have been answered, in part, by cameras which have appeared, or are about to appear, on the commercial market, such as the Photorecord of Folmer Graflex and the Eastman Micro-File camera. Dr. Draeger offers a very brief introduction to the problems of emulsions—their costs and limitations. Vernon D. Tate has written what is, without doubt, the most comprehensive study presented in the book. He analyzes thoroughly the types of reading instruments for microfilm, the problems which have to be overcome in connection with each type, and the criteria for examining the finished product. Since the Richmond meeting Dr. Tate has contributed to the progress of this new development by critically examining many of the reading devices as they have appeared. The resulting committee reports have been published in the *Bulletin of the American Library Association* from time to time.

Of special note is the report of a panel discussion on standardization in microphotography and a summary by the editor which condenses the bulk of the volume's material in nontechnical language. The Introduction should not be overlooked, for it contains considerable material of more recent date than the symposium and brings the volume more nearly up to press date than the usual book of this sort.

The appearance of this work indicates the pressing need for such a recording of material each year for at least the next several years while this development is growing and changing so very rapidly. It seems rather obvious that

there should be an annual crystallization and discussion and a clearinghouse for current information, certainly until microphotography has its own established means of communication and dissemination.

HERMAN H. FUSSLER

University of Chicago Libraries

Library literature, 1933-1935: An author and subject index-digest to current books, pamphlets and periodical literature relating to the library profession. Edited by MARIAN SHAW. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. vii+[1]+435. Sold on service basis.

In this volume the useful work begun with Cannons' *Bibliography of library economy, 1876-1920*, and carried on in *Library literature, 1921-32*, is brought to comparatively recent times. But with a difference. This volume does its job about as satisfactorily as even the most captious might require. Included in its more than four hundred pages are "author and subject entries for articles in 85 periodicals and for 233 books and pamphlets of professional interest." Nor is this all. Many important periodicals have been richly annotated, so that anyone interested in the literature of any subject may determine the nature and content of articles in journals of difficult access. The importance of this practice becomes evident when one considers that professional periodicals published in the Scandinavian countries, Russia, and China, to say nothing of those appearing in countries whose languages are more familiar, are all indexed.

As a matter of fact, the annotations make this volume considerably more than an index. There is hardly a topic which is not well represented, and the volume serves as an excellent and handy substitute for the periodicals themselves. Consider, for example, the topic "Children's literature." It is represented by thirty articles under the main heading and by many more under several subheadings. Practically all the entries in this section are followed by annotations which are frequently elaborate. This section is not at all unusual, but is rather typical of the scope of the volume and the thoroughness with which the work has been undertaken.

With this volume before us, and with the promise of additional future issues, it is interesting to look ahead to an analysis of library literature. What changes or developments in professional thinking and practice, at least as reflected in the literature, have taken and will take place? Even now it is possible to note certain trends and certain emphases, although comparisons must perforce be qualified. Thus, for the three years covered by the current volume, one finds seven articles noted on "National planning"; this topic is not even listed in the 1921-32 volume. Similarly, in the 1933-35 volume, "Regional libraries" is represented by five articles under the main heading and by eight more under various subheadings; in the earlier volume the subject is all but ignored.

Another type of comparison is also possible through the annotations, for these indicate the specific point of view of the author. A somewhat casual reminiscing over the literature of book selection suggests the possibility that librarians were primarily concerned with standards of selection some thirty or forty years ago, and more recently with the purely administrative aspects. This is little more than a "hunch," but it would be interesting to check its authenticity. Similar comparisons for almost any topic are distinct possibilities for the future, and the procedure will be relatively simple if the editors maintain the high standards of completeness and annotation exhibited in this 1933-35 volume.

LEON CARNOVSKY

Graduate Library School
University of Chicago

Classified list of 4800 serials currently received in the libraries of the University of Pennsylvania and of Bryn Mawr, Haverford, and Swarthmore colleges. Edited by DOROTHY HALE LITCHFIELD for the BOARD OF GRADUATE EDUCATION AND RESEARCH. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1936. Pp. ix+411. \$5.00.

A cataloger's examination of a new list of serials will certainly begin with the query: "How will this help us in our listing and cataloging of serial publications?" A hasty glance at this *Classified list of 4800 serials* would undoubtedly bring the answer, "Not at all," based primarily on the omission of dates and volume numbers. Careful consideration, however, is sure to revise this reply. Furthermore, the list was neither planned nor prepared to aid catalogers, and such assistance is entirely incidental.

The purpose of the list is given in the Introduction, in which the editor says: "Primarily, the plan was to eliminate duplications of expensive and seldom-used periodicals and continuations among these libraries." As it is a current list, it "includes only those serials of which at least one number or part has been received since January 1, 1933, by the library which reported the title." In addition to the four libraries mentioned on the title-page, titles are included from the Wistar Institute, the Flower Astronomical Observatory, and the Cancer Research Laboratories (now the Biochemical Research Foundation of Franklin Institute).

Even a cursory reading of the Introduction shows the care and thoroughness with which the work has been done. The resultant volume does much more than carry out the original purpose. Scholars in the vicinity of these libraries will surely find it of great value in their research. Of convenient size, anyone can keep it at hand on desk or bookshelves and learn quickly where to go to find the material he wants. The classified form seems especially adapted to this use of the work. Specialists in the various fields were consulted, particularly as regards subdivision of classes. This is reflected in the

lack of subdivision in some subjects, such as chemistry, and the quite detailed subdivision of others, for example, education. Terms in general use by experts in each field have been adopted in every case.

In the Introduction is given full information of the plan and the method of procedure, including the style adopted for entries. These do not always follow Library of Congress or A.L.A. catalog rules, but they are consistent, and the Index includes references from variant forms. The addition of the name of the body editorially responsible for a periodical, when the latter is not listed under the name of this body, and of the headquarters of the organizations is a valuable feature.

Catalogers will be pleased with the full Bibliography. An excellent Index of over a hundred pages renders easy the finding of any subject or title.

ESTHER A. SMITH

General Library
University of Michigan

Canada. Dominion Bureau of Statistics. Education Statistics Branch. *Biennial survey of libraries in Canada, 1935*. Ottawa, 1936. Pp. 56+32.

Public libraries circulate about 2 books per capita each year in Canada, 4 in the United States, and 4.5 in Great Britain, according to the latest report of the Canadian Bureau of Statistics. Within the Canadian border there is a wide variation in circulation—from 4 per capita in Ontario to 0.3 in Quebec. In 1935 public libraries cost about \$0.18 for each person in Canada as compared with \$0.38 per person in the United States.

It is hard to overestimate the value of this biennial survey to anyone interested in library work in Canada. The facts are up to date. The accuracy of the figures is attested by the mere name of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. The broad scope is shown by the headings "Public libraries," "University, college and professional school libraries," "Business, technical society and government libraries," "School libraries," and "Library associations and library schools."

Public libraries receive the most detailed treatment. Statistics are given to show the financial support, the volume of public-library work, comparison of library service in Canada with that in the United States, the completeness with which library service covers urban communities, adult and juvenile circulation, fiction and nonfiction circulation, and many other aspects of public-library work.

The section on school libraries covers the provincial grants for books in schools, the co-operation between public libraries and school libraries, special provision for teachers' reading, and other relevant subjects. Although much work has been done to build up libraries in Canadian schools, the report shows that deplorable conditions still exist in many parts of the country.

One of the most useful sections of the survey is an up-to-date directory of

libraries for the whole of Canada, which gives the name of the library, the address, the name of the librarian, the number of volumes and pamphlets in the library, and the classification system in use.

Readers outside of Canada will probably find their chief interest in the chapter "Regional library systems, actual and embryonic," which shows how Canada is following the world-trend toward co-operation. Although there has been no attempt at nation-wide co-operation between Canadian libraries, there has been a growing movement toward regional unions which may someday form a solid basis for national library service. J. H. Pafford, in *Library co-operation in Europe*, says: "The best way finally to bring about satisfactory co-operation between all libraries is not to start at the top with, for instance, attempts to compile world union catalogues, but at the bottom, with the individual library." In Canada, in some of the older, well-settled sections where every little town or village has a library, often ill supported, various schemes are being tried whereby libraries pool part of their book resources yet each retains its own individuality. In other parts of the country, where either no libraries or only very poor ones have existed, regional libraries have been introduced through the Carnegie Corporation. The experiment in the Fraser Valley, British Columbia, is too well known to need comment. The Carnegie Demonstration in Prince Edward Island is no less interesting. Statistics, maps, and short descriptions of both these regional systems are included in the survey along with accounts of many other experiments in co-operation.

The *Biennial survey of libraries in Canada*, issued by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, is necessarily confined to bare statements of fact, statistics, and brief excerpts from reports of librarians. It cannot attempt to interpret the facts or make recommendations for the future. For a thorough understanding of the library situation in Canada it should be read along with the report, *Libraries in Canada*, issued in 1933 by the Commission of Enquiry. The two reports, taken together, give a comprehensive idea of present library conditions in Canada and of possible developments in the future.

FLORENCE B. MURRAY

Public Library of Toronto

Missouri libraries, 1915-1935. By HENRY ORMAL SEVERANCE, ADA McDANIEL ELLIOTT, and ANN TODD. ("University of Missouri bulletin," Vol. XXXVII, No. 12, "Library series," No. 18.) Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri, 1936. Pp. 64.

The libraries of Missouri. A survey of facilities. By E. L. MORGAN and MELVIN W. SNEED. ("Research bulletin," No. 236.) Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri, College of Agriculture, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1936. Pp. 94.

Taken together, the two publications here considered present a summary of the recent history of the library movement in Missouri and a statistical

survey of present library service in that state. They are official evidence of a joint effort by the Missouri Library Association and the state university, through its Agricultural Experiment Station, to set forth with entire candor the plain facts concerning the libraries of their state and to use these facts as a basis for a realistic plan for future library development.

Missouri, it should be noted, is almost the "average" American state in the statistics of its public-library service. In expenditures per capita it ranks twenty-second among the states; in circulation per capita, twenty-fourth; in percentage of population served, twenty-sixth; and in volumes per capita, twenty-seventh.¹ Though the data presented in these two straightforward reports leave the reader with a keen sense of discouragement as to the extent of library progress in Missouri, they are perhaps unusually significant because of the very fact that the situation they describe is so nearly the norm for the nation as a whole.

The pattern of library service disclosed in these surveys follows in somewhat exaggerated form one that is only too familiar in the Middle West, as well as in a number of other states. Its essential features are: library service of varying quality in nearly all urban communities; service to rural areas practically nonexistent; a high proportion of small and feeble library units with inadequate stocks of books and periodicals; and no county libraries or other types of large-unit service. The concentration of the great bulk of library service in urban communities is strikingly shown by the fact that the five largest cities, with less than 40 per cent of the total population of the state, account for approximately 75 per cent of the book stock, 80 per cent of the circulation, and 85 per cent of the expenditure of all public libraries.

The kinds of facts presented and the methodology used in Mr. Sneed's survey were almost necessarily determined by the statistics generally available in the libraries of the state. The survey therefore adheres to traditional forms. The abundant factual material included has been compiled with evident thoroughness and care and has been presented clearly and effectively with the aid of numerous tables and graphs. One interesting section is devoted to the tenure of office, education, and salaries of the public librarians of the state. Special consideration has also been given to the extent of periodical and newspaper holdings of the libraries.

The state library plan adopted by the Missouri Library Association is naturally and wisely based upon the findings of the survey. It recommends strengthening the central library agency of the state, the development of regional library service, the attainment of some degree of equalization between the needs of the richer and the poorer regions in the provision of library service, and the improvement of library personnel by means of a certification law.

¹ These rankings are for the forty-eight states (omitting the District of Columbia) and are based on figures taken from the survey under review. The order varies slightly from that shown in *The equal chance* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1936).

The authors of the survey and Mrs. Elliott and Mr. Severance, with their associated workers in the Library Association, have made 1935 a stock-taking year in the history of Missouri libraries. As such it will be a convenient and useful checking point against which to measure future changes and advances in library development in the state.

CARLETON B. JOECKEL

Graduate Library School
University of Chicago

The Catholic encyclopedia. A general reference work for art, biography, education, history, law, literature, philosophy, the sciences, religion and the Church, Vol. I: A-Argel. Rev. and enl. ed. Edited by EDWARD A. PACE, et al. In 16 vols.; New York: Gilmary Society, 1936. Pp. xxii+800. Cloth binding: \$100.00, \$6.50 a vol.; half-leather: \$144.00, \$9.50 a vol.; Shahan Memorial ed.: \$160.00, \$10.50 a vol.

The Preface outlines the policy governing the makeup of this new edition of the *Catholic encyclopedia* as compared with the original edition:

The plates for text, illustrations and maps are entirely new. Every article of the original edition has been scanned with a view to revising it; many articles of obsolete interest have been omitted; many needless repetitions have been avoided; many articles have been considerably condensed; many new articles added. A novel feature is definition, derivation, pronunciation of each title. This edition is not only revised but enlarged, a Catholic, but also a general work of reference. . . .

As an indication of the scope of the new edition may be mentioned among general articles included in it, but not found in the original edition: "Absorption," "Antelope," "Appendicitis," "Apple," "Alice in Wonderland"; but it lacks articles on "Adsorption," "Agouti" (or "Aguti"), "Allergy" (which probably causes at least as much distress as appendicitis), and "Agave." There is a new general article on the "Alphabet" (apart from its specifically religious uses), but the most recent item in its bibliography is Flinders Petrie's *Formation of the alphabet* (1912)!

Among the condensations may be noted the articles (both of which are now without portraits) on "Abraham a Sancta Clara" and "Alphonsus Maria de Liguori." In view of the attacks made upon the latter, the wisdom of the curtailment may be questioned. At the end of the article on the former is repeated from the original edition: "[To honor] the memory of Abraham the city of Vienna has begun a new edition of his works." This might have been brought up to date by listing this particular edition: *Werke. In Auslese.* (Im Auftr. d. Stadtrates d. Residenzstadt Wien hrsg. . . . von Hans Strigl. Band I-VI. Wien: Kirsch, 1904-7.) Frequently the carefully annotated bibliographies of the original edition have been condensed by the omission of titles and annotations, while more up-to-date works have not always been added. The three bibliographies in the article "Altar" have altogether but two new titles. The

bibliographically useful monographs in the series "Studies on canon law," issued by the Catholic University of America, might be listed in the articles dealing with their subjects. Under "Annulment," Petrovits' *The new Church law on matrimony* (No. 6 in the series) is given, but Kennedy's equally apposite thesis, *The special matrimonial process in cases of evident nullity* (No. 93) is not listed; nor is Connolly's *Appeals, an historical synopsis and commentary* (No. 79) mentioned in the article on "Appeals."

The principle which has governed the inclusion or omission of articles is not always clear. The article in the original edition on "Alcimus," the high priest, and that on St. "Agnes of Montepulciano" (canonized in 1726) have been omitted; while there are new articles on St. "Agapitus" (died in 274) and St. "Andrew Fournet" (canonized in 1933). The inclusion of the last-mentioned saint is a result of the policy of the editors of covering amplifications in the Calendar of Saints; on the other hand, however, the Blessed Andrew Kagwa (martyred in 1866, beatified in 1912) is omitted—possibly because it may have been arranged to deal with him in an article on "Uganda." Similarly, it may be the intention to treat the bull "Apostolicae sedis moderationi" (given more than a page in the original edition) in an article on the new "Code of Canon Law."

In general, the new edition, like the original, emphasizes what specially concerns the English-speaking peoples. In the case of "Americanism," however, the treatment seems inadequate. Its philological sense (i.e., as used of certain idioms in American English; cf. the *Standard dictionary*) is not explicitly dealt with, while both its general and theological uses are dismissed in a short article (without bibliography) of fifteen lines, reprinted verbatim from the *New Catholic dictionary* (New York, 1929). This article is a summary of the last paragraph in the article "Testem benevolentiae," covering a page in the original edition and there supplied with a satisfactory bibliography. In Buchberger's *Kirchenlexikon* the same subject is given a page, and in Vacant's *Dictionnaire de théologie catholique*, three pages, both articles having good bibliographies. The article on "Alcuin," for some years abbot of St. Martin's at Tours, does not discuss specifically the connection of the Carolingian reform with the development of the script used in the scriptorium of that monastery.

Events occurring since the publication of the former edition have been duly dealt with; the provisions of the new *Code of Canon Law*, for instance, receive proper attention, e.g., in the articles "Abbot," "Archbishop," etc. The treatment of amplifications in the Calendar of Saints has already been mentioned.

Fewer varieties of type have been used in the new edition. In the original edition the bibliographies were easy to read; authors were in capitals, titles in italics, and the bibliographies, including annotations, in type smaller than that of the articles. In the new edition the bibliographies are printed throughout in the same type as the articles. In the former edition Hebrew and Greek words, where necessary (e.g., when giving derivations) were quoted in the

original characters; in the new edition they are transliterated, but there is no table giving a key to the transliteration. While such a table may be considered superfluous for the Greek, it would be a convenience if each volume were supplied with a table indicating which system of transliteration has been followed for the Hebrew.

The new edition is not equal to the old in the matter of illustrations. The first volume of the old edition had more than a dozen portraits, several facsimiles, and numerous other illustrations, including coats of arms of states and of individuals; the first volume of the new edition has one portrait, no facsimiles, and fewer illustrations, including a very few coats of arms of individuals.

The maps in the new edition are outline maps in black and white, showing political boundaries and towns. For ecclesiastical maps, showing the boundaries of dioceses and the like, one would have to go to the antiquated maps (several of which are colored) in the original edition, or to the more up-to-date maps in the *New Catholic dictionary*, or, better still, to those in Buchberger's *Kirchenlexikon* (still in course of publication). The second edition (1929) of Streit's *Atlas hierarchicus* is, in part, antiquated.

The practice of giving, in a *see* reference, a short definition and even bibliographical references is wasteful of space. Such references should give merely the titles from which and to which one is referred. Since we might hope for an Index as complete and as accurate as that in the original edition, it might be feasible to omit *see* references in the text—leaving them to the Index.

The new edition lists, at the beginning of the longer articles, the main heads under which the subject will be treated; in this respect it is more convenient to use than the original edition. There seem to be very few errors. In the list of contributors at the beginning of the volume Monsignor Hyland is given as author of the article "Apostolic delegation"; in the body of the work the article has the title "Apostolic delegate." "Åland Islands" should be "Aland Islands."

To sum up: In a library with the ordinary reference tools the new edition will rarely be consulted for its general articles, unless such articles have a religious aspect (as, for instance, "Evolution"). As compared with the original edition, it is inferior in the fulness of its religious and bibliographical information, in the quality of its maps, in the number of its illustrations, including portraits and facsimiles, and in the varieties of printing types used. It is, however, apart from the one-volume *New Catholic dictionary* (which is already getting out of date), the only single work in English which deals in any detailed way with events too recent to be included in the original edition.

That the work will be an authoritative expression of Catholic teaching is guaranteed by the imprimatur of the Archbishop of New York, Patrick Cardinal Hayes, and by the eminence of the editors as Catholics and as

scholars. It is a pity that they have been hindered, presumably by economic considerations, from giving us a work as good, for reference and bibliographical purposes—at least in matters specifically Catholic—as the original edition.

C. U. FAYE

University of Illinois Library

Occupations and vocational guidance. A source list of pamphlet material. Compiled by WILMA BENNETT. 2d ed., rev. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. 123. \$1.25.

Books about jobs. A bibliography of occupational literature. By WILLARD E. PARKER. Preliminary ed. Chicago: National Occupational Conference and American Library Association, 1936. Pp. 402. \$3.00.

Guide to bibliographies of theses, United States and Canada. Compiled by THOMAS R. PALFREY and HENRY E. COLEMAN. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. 48. \$1.00.

African native music. An annotated bibliography. Compiled by DOUGLAS H. VARLEY. ("Royal Empire Society bibliographies," No. 8.) London: Royal Empire Society, 1936. Pp. 116. 5s.

Among a number of useful bibliographical tools that appeared during the latter part of 1936 those by Willard E. Parker and Wilma Bennett provide practical aid for the librarian and others interested in selecting material on vocations. Although there is some duplication in the material listed, the purpose and arrangement of the two publications differ to such an extent that each is a distinct contribution to bibliography. *Books about jobs* includes some pamphlet material, but there is no general attempt to analyze many pamphlets that appear as parts of series. Therefore, the analytic features of *Occupations and vocational guidance* enhance its value. For example, there are four entries, all analytics, under the heading of "Air conditioning," none of which is included in the larger work under its subdivision of "Heat, ventilation and air-conditioning engineer." Mr. Parker lists significant periodical entries—a useful feature, though most are from indexed periodicals. The alphabetical list of publishers in his book is valuable, but it does not afford so specific aid as Part I of Miss Bennett's work because the latter includes under the names of publishers the chief series and important booklets issued by each. The annotations in *Books about jobs* are clear and detailed; those in the list of the more important general books are particularly useful. Very few annotations appear in Miss Bennett's list. Those that do are of content type or are brief descriptions of the organizations responsible for the publications.

The *Guide to bibliographies of theses* furnishes a convenient aid for the student wishing to determine what research work has been completed in his field and also for the librarian looking for reference material. Following a list of

general bibliographies, Section II is devoted to special fields. Here the arrangement is alphabetical by subject, subarranged alphabetically by the name of the organization or individual responsible for the list. Part III, arranged alphabetically by the name of institutions, should prove especially valuable because of references to lists in college bulletins and in manuscript form.

By far the most scholarly of this group of bibliographies is that by Douglas H. Varley, the assistant librarian of the Royal Empire Society. Many of the entries are to society publications and to other sources not easily located. Although the annotations are very brief, they are to the point and significant. Many of the titles of articles are very general so that the specific nature of the annotations adds greatly to the usefulness of the bibliography. For example, there is an entry entitled: "Arab & Swahili dances & ceremonies," with the annotation stating: "Good descr. of drums and other instr."

The arrangement of material under geographical divisions helps to emphasize the influence of regions on the music of the African tribes. For American libraries the sections devoted to "African survivals in the New World" will prove of particular interest. Analytic entries from old travel books as well as more recent works and periodicals are included, the dates ranging from 1667 to 1936.

For those desiring information on drum signaling the section on "Drum language" will be of great value. Here the amount of material in foreign languages is particularly noticeable as only twenty-three of the seventy-seven entries are in English. The section devoted to the collection of material and phonograph recording will be of especial interest to students of folk lore.

The Index would be more valuable if titles as well as authors were included. In many cases there are several page references following a name, making it necessary to look a number of places before locating the desired title. Naturally the inclusion of additional material would increase the length of the booklet and its cost, perhaps beyond the value of the entries. It would, however, enhance its reference value and make it a still more useful bibliographical tool.

LULU RUTH REED

Graduate Library School
University of Chicago

Handbook of Latin American studies. A guide to the material published in 1935 on anthropology, archaeology, economics, geography, history, law, and literature. Edited by LEWIS HANKE. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1936. Pp. xv+[i]+250.

Those interested in the ever increasing cultural activity in the vast field of Latin-American studies will welcome this *Handbook* and feel grateful to the American Council of Learned Societies for having made possible this use-

ful publication. Very aptly the editor states that an annual guide to the rapidly increasing output of scholars in this field has been wanting. A total of 2,343 items are listed in the six major divisions of archeology and anthropology, economics, geography, history, law, and literature. All of them were not, strictly speaking, published in 1935, several being included that appeared prior to this date. The publications naturally enough are not confined to those issued in Spanish America but include many published in Spain, the United States, and other countries. In addition to books and pamphlets an attempt is made to include the most significant periodical articles that appeared during the year.

An analysis of the items under each subject reveals the following proportion: bibliography, 28; archeology, anthropology, and ethnology, 140; economics, 328; geography, 143; history, 727; law, 541; literature, 315; archival materials, 17. From this it would seem that the output in the field of history far exceeds that in the others, with law and economics as second and third, respectively, and literature in fourth rank. Has the literary fecundity of Latin America decreased, and the genius for the production of creative works of literature lacked inspiration in the trying days of social and economic reform? Not very likely. The disparity revealed by the *Handbook* is the result of a handicap long felt by those who have tried for years to keep up with the literary output of Spanish America. The numerous small publishing houses in the various Latin-American countries have not learned the American art of wide advertisement, and the public in the United States as well as in the various countries themselves is but faintly aware of the literary production. In Mexico, for example, the number of novels, dramas, and poetic works published in 1935 far exceeds the items listed in the *Handbook*.

Impressive and significant as are the accomplishments attained by the enthusiastic and capable group of editors who prepared the first issue of the *Handbook* for 1935, it is evident that, as Mr. Hanke frankly admits, the result is far from constituting a complete bibliography. In 1933 the Department of Foreign Relations of Mexico published a bibliography of Mexican publications for that year and included seven hundred items issued in Mexico alone. Unfortunately this bibliographical publication has been discontinued.

The editor of the *Handbook* announces that a list of the publications omitted will be published as an addendum to the next issue. Furthermore, he promises that it will contain a more special group of articles, such as a study on "Colonial art in America," "A comparative study of the Cabildos of Quito and Lima," "Guide to personnel of Latin American archives," "La Historiografía Argentina desde 1920," "Materials for the study of the Encomienda in Yucatan," and others. The reviewer can hardly commend this inclusion. The value of a handbook of Latin-American bibliography lies in its being as full and complete a guide to the output in all the various allied fields dealing with the different phases of Latin-American studies as possible.

Specialized articles such as those listed do not belong in this kind of bibliographical tool. They can find room more appropriately in the learned and scholarly reviews and periodicals such as *Hispanic American historical review*, *Hispania*, *New Mexico historical quarterly*, and many others of similar nature.

C. E. CASTAÑEDA

University of Texas

Memory or the invisible library. By R. P. BYERS. ("Superuniversity studies," No. 5.) Boston: Superuniversity Publications, 324 Newbury St., 1936. Pp. 20. \$0.50.

Mind or the reference library. By R. P. BYERS. ("Superuniversity studies," No. 6.) Boston: Superuniversity Publications, 324 Newbury St., 1936. Pp. 20. \$0.50.

The writer has always supposed that there are no libraries on the other side of the moon but that metaphysicians, transcendentalists, and lunatics may come from that unknowable region. But after a perusal of the two pamphlets cited above, the reviewer thinks they must have come from there. At first he thought they were just poetic or satiric diversions, librarian metaphors—*rarae aves*. Memory is indeed an "invisible library" and mind a "reference library"—fine! But *Memory* begins: "The invisible Library is the only one that exists. Our so-called libraries are really separate collections of showings of this Library which is necessarily invisible because it is a thing." That smacks not of poetry but of idealistic metaphysics—and lunar, I surmise.

These two "library" metaphors are the fifth and the sixth of seven "superuniversity studies." They are "priced at \$2.50, boxed as a fine set." A clue to what "superuniversity" means appears in pages 11-16 of *Mind*. The lunar library is analyzed into four "Signifiabiles": Spirit, Will, Soul, and Self (p. 11). Besides these there are 97 "Users" or "Learners" and 109 "Patrons" or "Ascertainers," these last subdivided into five "Grades." The Fourth Grade has "20 Interrogators (the determinists) (the persuaders of the ref. lib.) to which the Reference Library lends complicated Problems (troublesome ideas) (testibles)." The sixteenth of these is the "Post-post-post-matriculant (the governor) (the superuniversity) (the forcible method of investigation) (the assorter of concealable notions) (the evanisher of troublesome ideas)." The seventeenth follows: "The subuniversity (the statesman) (the opportune method of investigation) (the reorganizer of justificatory notions) (the facer of troublesome ideas) (intrepidity)" (p. 16). This may be the lunar brain-truster.

All this may be obscurely satirical—not metaphysical after all. But the reviewer cannot discern that. He confesses that the lunar ideology and language are alien to him. But the parenthetic mode is quoted above precisely. On page 13 there are no less than 140 of these curves, suggesting the antique

almanacs with their hundreds of new moons and last quarters. As to what place these strange lunar studies should have in terrestrial libraries—which do exist—the reviewer cannot see, but bids mundane librarians to be wary.

HENRY E. BLISS

College of the City of New York

The enchanted glass. The Elizabethan mind in literature. By HARDIN CRAIG. New York: Oxford University Press, 1936. Pp. ix+[ii]+293. \$2.50.

It is possible, Professor Craig assures us in the first chapter of this illuminating survey of the mental life of the English Renaissance, "in one's opinion and feelings to be a reasonably good subject of Queen Elizabeth." *The enchanted glass* covers a wide field: Elizabethan cosmology, the Elizabethan's reactions to that cosmology (especially as exemplified in magic and astrology), his system of psychology, his scientific method, rhetoric, philosophy of education, logic, conventions and ethics, aesthetics, and attitudes of mind—using these terms in a broad sense—and the application of the knowledge obtained by the study of the Elizabethan mind to the interpretation of the literature which it produced. And, indeed, with the insight into the workings of the Elizabethan mind which this book furnishes us, many things in the literature of the time which seem to us strained, obscure, and unbelievable take on new and often startling meanings. The impossible plot of Heywood's *Woman killed with kindness*, for example, is, according to Elizabethan systems of psychology and ethics, perfectly rational and understandable.

To cover this wide field Professor Craig has assembled in these pages a vast quantity of significant facts. Though the style is not obscure, the compactness of the work and the nature of the materials presented render the book somewhat difficult to read. As might be expected of both the author and the press, the standards of accuracy are very high. The Index, on the other hand, though it contains a full series of citations of the works of Elizabethan earlier writers discussed in the text, does not cover the subjects treated. As this book will undoubtedly be much used for reference, this defect is unfortunate.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

Folger Shakespeare Library

Report of the Informal Conference on Union Catalogs, Library of Congress, April 17th and 18th, 1936, called by the A.L.A. Committee on Resources of American Libraries and the Carnegie Corporation. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. 46.

For many years there has developed an ever increasing interest among scholars and librarians in union catalogs, both for locating material not locally available and for preventing duplication of expensive and little-used

material in neighboring institutions. This interest has been quickened by the present need of economy and by the availability of federal aid through the W.P.A. To review the present situation in regard to union catalogs and to discuss problems which have arisen in connection with them, an Informal Conference of thirty-three interested persons was called at the suggestion of the Carnegie Corporation. The present pamphlet is a summary, based on stenographic minutes, of the discussions at that meeting.

The oldest and most complete union catalog in the country is that at the Library of Congress, and a full description of its work is given in an Appendix. The discussion brought out the need for locating copies of books which are in the Library of Congress but which can also be found in other libraries in various sections of the country. Since other libraries ordinarily do not print cards if L.C. cards are available, such duplicates cannot now be located through the Union Catalog. A statement by Mr. Hastings on the use of L.C. printed cards as bases for union catalogs is included in full.

After a brief discussion of union catalogs in Europe, a more extended description of half-a-dozen American catalogs is given. The Union Catalog of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area is discussed at some length. There the catalogs of the various libraries were filmed, and W.P.A. typists were employed to copy the entries from the films, adding symbols indicating location of copies. This led to a discussion of the use of microfilms in compiling union catalogs, in which it was stated that the entire Union Catalog at the Library of Congress could probably be filmed for about \$5,000. This will provide a foundation on which any library may build through the addition of cards representing future acquisitions of the co-operating libraries. Other topics discussed included the use of W.P.A. aid in developing union catalogs and surveys and the desirability of locating copies of works described in scholarly bibliographies. A preliminary list of union catalogs in the United States in active operation or in preparation is given in an Appendix.

There was no attempt on the part of the Conference to express any fixed conclusions on the subjects considered. This report is issued, in the words of Dr. Bishop's "Introductory note," "in the hope that it will stimulate interest and careful thinking about union lists, surveys, and catalogs, and the administrative problems involved in their compilation, continuation and use." We believe that hope will not be disappointed.

W. E. WRIGHT

New York Public Library

Die Kataloge der grösseren Bibliotheken des deutschen Sprachgebietes. Ergebnisse einer Umfrage des Ausschusses für Sachkatalogisierung vom. 1. September, 1933. Berlin: Hans Trebst, 1935. Pp. xv+188.

As the title indicates, this volume is the first of what may be a series of publications to be prepared by the German committee on subject cataloging.

Apparently the committee is approaching its task with characteristic German thoroughness. Perhaps the final outcome will be a new classification, based on systems now available, selecting from each its best features and bringing that best down to date. With many learned and experienced librarians working in co-operation, the results should prove a notable advance toward a system which librarians the world over will have to reckon with. Especially may this prove true if the scheme can be developed through actual application to one of the largest and most representative of German libraries, e.g., the Prussian or Bavarian state library, or one of the larger university libraries.

The reviewer is assuming that "Sachkatalogisierung" has reference primarily to the systematic subject catalog, to which the alphabetic subject catalog may be regarded as more or less complementary. The *Umfrage* ("questionnaire"), sent September 1, 1933, to 172 libraries, with a few exceptions numbering one hundred thousand or more volumes, received 164 answers, of which 82 were selected as the basis for the present volume. A good idea of the character and scope of the questionnaire may be obtained by referring to the table representing the first answer—that of the Prussian State Library, Department of Printed Books.

Examination of the 82 answers shows that no one system of classification has gained much foothold in German libraries. While in America the Decimal Classification has been accepted by a majority of popular libraries, and the Library of Congress scheme has gained some standing in learned libraries, in Germany the only system adopted to any extent outside of the library of origin is Hartwig's scheme, applied by him at Halle University over fifty years ago. Of the 82 institutions, 17 claim to have based their classifications to some extent on Hartwig. Of these, 7 are university libraries; 5, city libraries; 4, provincial libraries (Landesbibliotheken); 1, a government library. Three have chosen the Decimal Classification in some form; Bern City Library, the German abridged translation of 1932; Aachen Technical High School and Bern University, the Brussels adaptation. The other libraries have for the most part their own special systems, the origin of some of them being traced back as far as to Martin Schrettinger and J. M. Francke.

As for cataloging guides, the Prussian *Instructions* of 1899 and 1908 are cited by many, but by no means as large a number as one would expect. On the other hand, a surprisingly large proportion report *mündl. (Überl. mündliche Überlieferung)*, that is, no printed or written rules, merely verbal instructions handed down from one librarian to another.

The present volume, and others to follow, will prove of much value to students of cataloging and classification. Library schools and libraries will do well to add them to their reference collections in bibliography and library science.

J. C. M. HANSON

Sister Bay, Wisconsin

BOOK NOTES

American recommended practice for reference data for periodicals. Approved, American Standards Association, November 1, 1935. New York: American Standards Association, 1936. Pp. 4. \$0.15.

Librarians wrestling with the intricacies of serial cataloging will be grateful for this attempt to introduce to the publishers of periodicals a standard practice in printing. These recommendations were approved by a general conference of publishers and librarians organized by the American Standards Association. There is nothing revolutionary in the practice suggested; it is now followed by the majority of publishers. If adherence to it becomes universal, the puzzles now encountered by serial indexers and catalogers will largely disappear.

Around the World almanac in eighty questions. First series for 1937 World almanac. By CARTER ALEXANDER. New York: Carter Alexander, publisher, 1937. Pp. 24. \$0.10.

This pamphlet is especially designed to teach school children how to look up information for themselves. It is an exercise book containing eighty questions, the answers to which may be found in the 1937 *World almanac*. This particular tool was chosen because "careful study showed that it was the most widely available reference book with the needed qualities and at a price low enough for the poorest schools and libraries, and some individuals." Space is provided for the answers, a citation of the page on which the answer was found, and the subject heading in the Index which gave the clue to the pertinent material.

Care of filmstrips and motion-picture films in libraries. By CHARLES G. WEBER and JOHN R. HILL. (National Bureau of Standards "Research paper," RP942: Part of *Journal of research of the National Bureau of Standards*, Vol. XVII [November, 1936].) Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1936. Pp. 753-60. \$0.05.

This paper is the result of studies made by the National Research Council under a fund granted by the Carnegie Corporation and the National Archives. The report is brief and in the main covers only the essentials, indicating that yet further studies along similar lines must be made. The studies show that cellulose acetate film used for recording purposes is chemically stable but hygroscopic, requiring close control of relative humidity which should not be less than about 50 per cent. A brief outline of proper storage conditions and methods is given. The surface of the film is fragile and must be guarded against scratching; this necessitates the preservation of important original negatives for duplicating purposes. Nitrate film used in the commercial motion-picture industry is unstable and highly combustible. Special precautions are outlined which must be used in storing this type of film.

Daily Meditations by Philip Pain. Reproduced from the original edition of 1668 in the Huntington Library. With an Introduction by LEON HOWARD. San Marino, Calif.: Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery, 1936. Pp. 36. \$0.75.

This reproduction of the unique copy of the first edition of the *Daily Meditations: or, Quotidian Preparations for, and Considerations of Death and Eternity. Begun July 19, 1666.* By Philip Pain: *Who lately suffering Shipwreck, was drowned—"the earliest known specimen of original American verse printed in the English Colonies"* (as Wegelin described it in his *Early American poetry*)—will be welcomed by students of American literature. To the student of American printing it makes available an example of the

work of Marmaduke Johnson. The "Postscript to the reader," it is of interest to note, however, is signed, not with the printer's initials as in the second edition (1670), but with the letters J. T. In the Introduction, Professor Howard discusses the scanty biographical data concerning the young author, the influence of Herbert, Quarles, and Donne upon him, and the literary value of these meditations which "reflect a personal and directly emotional quality . . . rarely found in the American poetry of this period."

Essay and general literature index. 1934-1936 Supplement. An index to 10,632 essays and articles in 570 volumes of collections of essays and miscellaneous works. Edited by MARIAN SHAW. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1937. Pp. viii+625. Sold on service basis.

According to the Preface, "This volume is a cumulation in one alphabet of all Supplements to the Index issued from 1934 thru 1936. Ninety-one additional volumes have been indexed and added to this cumulation. The 1934 and 1935 annual volumes and the July 1936 issue of the Index may be discarded, since this volume contains all the indexing included in those respective issues. According to the plan of publication there will continue to be a July issue of the Index and an annual cumulated volume each year until 1940, when a permanent volume covering the years 1934-1940 will be published." For convenience of reference the "List of books indexed" has been reprinted and is issued in separate form.

The equal chance. Books help to make it. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. 32.

This pamphlet is probably the most effective single piece of general library publicity ever published in America. The combination of striking illustrations, graphs, and maps in contrasting red and black with an almost equally graphic text has produced a dramatic but sane popularization of certain simple facts regarding the present distribution of public-library resources. It makes very clear the need for state-wide and nation-wide extension and equalization of library service.

Gold star list of American fiction, 1823-1937. Five hundred and sixty-five titles classified by subject, with notes. Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse Public Library, 1937. Pp. 32. \$0.25, postpaid.

This familiar pamphlet "merely aims to present and classify about 500 American stories suitable for public library use" as recommended by members of the staff of the Syracuse Public Library. Personal preferences rather than literary standards largely determine the selection. Librarians will object to some of the inclusions and wonder at many exclusions; nevertheless, the list will prove helpful especially to the small library where more exhaustive lists are not readily available.

The Huntington Library bulletin. No. 10 (October, 1936). Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1936. Pp. 188. \$2.50.

The October, 1936, *Huntington Library bulletin* contains the following articles: "Robert Aylett," by Frederick M. Padelford; "Benjamin Franklin's memoirs," by Max Farrand; "The censorship in the case of Macklin's *The man of the world*," by Dougald MacMillan; "Thomas Paine, Edward Nares, and Mrs. Piozzi's marginalia," by Marjorie Nicolson; "William Blake, painter," by C. H. Collins Baker; "Letters of Charles Lever to his wife and daughter," by Franklin P. Rolfe; and "Raleigh's 'Even such is time,'" by Virgil B. Heltzel.

Learning for ladies (1508-1895). A book exhibition at the Huntington Library. San Marino, Calif.: Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery, 1936. Pp. 16. \$0.10.

Science and the New World (1526-1800). An exhibition to illustrate the scientific contributions of the New World and the spread of scientific ideas in America. San Marino, Calif.: Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery, 1937. Pp. 20. \$0.10.

Contemporary cartoons. An exhibition of original drawings of American artists at the Huntington Library, March-April. San Marino, Calif.: Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery, 1937. Pp. 24. \$0.10.

These Huntington Library handlists to exhibitions are entertaining historical essays on the subjects illustrated by the displays. Attention is called to the various items on display by numbers in the margin of the text opposite the discussion of the book or picture exhibited. The first two pamphlets particularly will be suggestive to librarians who see in library exhibits the opportunity to illustrate the development of an idea or the growth of a science as reflected in print.

Die Originalausgaben der Werke Johann Sebastian Bachs. Ein Beitrag zur Musikbibliographie. Von GEORG KINSKY. Vienna: Herbert Reichner, 1937. Pp. 134. Rm. 9.

The author of this volume discusses the printed editions of Bach's works published during his lifetime: the Mühlhaus cantata *Gott ist mein König*, the four parts of the *Clavier-Übung*, Schemelli's hymnbook, Schübeler's chorals, the *Musikalische Opfer* for Frederick the Great, the variations about the Christmas carol "Vom Himmel hoch," culminating in the *Kunst der Fuge*, together with the posthumous works before 1800. Included are careful bibliographical descriptions of the various editions and details relating to the engraving and printing, the engravers and publishers, dates of publication, etc. The edition is limited to one hundred copies.

The state library agency: its functions and organization. Statement by the A.L.A. Library Extension Board adopted by the A.L.A. Executive Board (for present use, subject to revision). Chicago: American Library Association, 1937. Pp. 34 (planographed). \$0.10.

Following a brief Introduction, the functions and forms of organization of the typical state library agency are described in some detail. Then types of central agency are discussed, together with desirable basic principles and ways and means of achieving centralization. Finally, an Appendix lists and briefly analyzes existing state library agencies by form of organization and by states. The inclusion of a provision for a strong central agency in so many of the current library plans makes this pamphlet particularly timely and useful.

Topical index to the National geographic magazine. Compiled by H. SKADSHEIM. Distributed by the White Brothers' International Visual Education Service, Berrien Springs, Mich. Pp. 28. \$0.25; five copies, \$1.00.

This pamphlet has been devised as an aid in the study of botany, zoölogy, agriculture, history, geography, and other topics covered by the *National geographic magazine* and indexes the contents for the twenty years since 1917. Although the material is already indexed in the *Readers' guide*, the convenience of using this compact publication will recommend it to many librarians who depend upon their file of the *National geographic* for reference purposes.

Trinity College booklist. Master list. February, 1937. Hartford, Conn.: Trinity College, 1937. Pp. 16 (mimeographed).

This list of approximately eight hundred titles contains more than half of the books in use in the Trinity College reading course. The selection is excellent and should prove helpful to college and other librarians interested in developing wider and better reading among their patrons. The compiler admits serious omissions in the history and philosophy sections.

BOOKS RECEIVED

The following publications have been received at the offices of the Library quarterly:

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- Adam Smith and the "Wealth of nations." An adventure in book collecting and a bibliography.* By HOMER B. VANDERBLUE. Boston: Baker Library, Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, 1936. Pp. 14. \$0.75.
- Afrikaanse Boekweek. Onder beskerming van die Pretoriase Kultuurraad en die Universiteit van Pretoria. Katalogus van Boeke. Tientoongestel vanaf 17 tot 27 Junie, 1936, in die Pretoriussaal, Pretoria.* Pretoria, South Africa, 1936. Pp. 122.
- An alternative classification for Catholic books. A scheme for Catholic theology, canon law, and Church history. To be used with the Dewey Decimal, Classification Décimale, or Library of Congress classifications.* Compiled for the Catholic Library Association by JEANETTE MURPHY LYNN. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co.; Chicago: American Library Association, 1937. Pp. lxvi+400 (planographed). \$4.25.
- American block print calendar, 1937.* Milwaukee: Gutenberg Publishing Co., 1936. Fifty-three prints and drawings. \$1.50.
- Archiv für Buchbinderei. Zeitschrift für Einbandkunst, Jahrg. XXXVI, Heft 8.* Halle: Wilhelm Knapp, 1936. Pp. 57-64.
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- A bibliography of studies of social conditions in the Pittsburgh area, 1930-1935.* Pittsburgh: Bureau of Social Research, Federation of Social Agencies, 519 Smithfield St., 1936. Pp. [iv]+111+[1]. \$1.00.
- Book selection: its principles and practice.* By JAMES HOWARD WELLARD. London: Grafton & Co., 1937. Pp. xxiv+205. 10s. 6d.
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- Cash relief.* By JOANNA C. COLCORD. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1936. Pp. 263. \$1.50.
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